DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 160 738 CE 016 271

TITLE	The National Manpower Survey of the Criminal Justice System. Volume Five: Criminal Justice Education and Training.
INSTITUTION	National Planning Association, Washington, D.C.
SPONS AGENCY	National Inst. of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice (Dept. of Justice/LEAA), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	78
CONTRACT	J-LEAA-035-74
NOTE	625p.; For related documents see ED 154 156, CE 016 502, and CE 018 227-229
AVAILABLE FROM	Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 (Stock Number 027-000-00663-9)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$1.16 HC-$32.81 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Correctional Rehabilitation; Courts; *Criminal Law; *Educational Needs; *Educational Programs; Educational Trends; Federal Programs; Government Employees; Higher Education; *Job Training; Law Enforcement; Law Schools; Lawyers; Legal Education; Management Development; Manpower Development; *Manpower Needs; National Surveys; Needs Assessment; Police; Professional Continuing Education; *Program Effectiveness; Program Improvement; Recruitment; Staff Improvement
IDENTIFIERS	Law Enforcement Education Program; LEEP

ABSTRACT

Focusing on education and training needs for law enforcement and criminal justice personnel, this document is one in a series of six volumes reporting the results of the National Manpower Survey (NMS) of the Criminal Justice System. Chapter 1 of ten chapters provides an overview of nine types of educational and/or training programs, including the following: federal programs, criminal justice education, the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP), management training, Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), training, law enforcement academies, law schools, continuing legal education, and professional education for corrections. Chapters 2-10 discuss in more detail the programs and resources offered by each of these nine categories of agencies and institutions. Each chapter assesses these programs and resources in terms of meeting agency requirements for appropriate educational and training support and includes summaries of curriculum content and objectives, current status, future trends, conclusions, and recommendations. (BM)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED160738

The National Manpower Survey of the Criminal Justice System

Volume Five
Criminal Justice Education and Training

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

CE 016 271

National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
U. S. Department of Justice

For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington, D.C. 20402

Stock No. 027-000-00663-5

National Institute of Law Enforcement and
Criminal Justice
Blair G. Ewing, Acting Director

Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
James M.H. Gregg, Acting Administrator

This project was supported by Contract Number J-LEAA-035-74 awarded to the National Planning Association, Washington, D. C., by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U. S. Department of Justice, under the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended. Points of view or opinions stated in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the U. S. Department of Justice.

Part One

FOREWORD

The criminal justice system is a labor-intensive enterprise, vital to the nation and beset with manpower problems. One of the most recent attempts to help alleviate some of the problems was the National Manpower Survey. The Congressional mandate for this survey was written in 1973, the survey was begun in 1974 and completed last year.

This volume is intended for educators in the field of law enforcement and criminal justice and for persons who manage or make decisions about training programs. It covers a wide variety of education and training programs, including those for management.

The survey results do not provide final answers to all of the manpower issues. In particular, the assumptions built into the model for projecting manpower requirements may have to be modified in light of additional experience. Nevertheless, the Institute believes the study represents a significant advance in the tools available to deal with manpower problems. We hope it will be of value to the many hundreds of state and local officials who must plan for manpower needs.

Blair G. Ewing
Acting Director
National Institute of Law Enforcement
and Criminal Justice

VOLUME V

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface xiv

Acknowledgements. xv

Part 1 PAGE

CHAPTER

I. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY 1

A. OVERVIEW OF FEDERAL PROGRAMS. 1

B. CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION. 2

C. THE LEEP PROGRAM. 5

D. MANAGEMENT TRAINING 8

E. FBI TRAINING PROGRAMS 10

F. LAW ENFORCEMENT ACADEMIES 11

G. LAW SCHOOLS 13

H. CONTINUING LEGAL EDUCATION. 14

I. PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR CORRECTIONS. 16

II. AN OVERVIEW OF FEDERAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS FOR CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRAINING AND EDUCATION. 18

A. THE OMB ESTIMATES 20

B. LAW ENFORCEMENT ASSISTANCE ADMINISTRATION 20

1. Continuing Education and Training Programs. 23
2. Discretionary Grants for Training and Education 25
3. Part C and Part E Block Grants. 25
4. Allocation of LEAA Funds to Training and Education. 26

C. OUTLAYS BY THE VETERANS' ADMINISTRATION 29

D. OUTLAYS OF OTHER FEDERAL AGENCIES 38

E. SUMMARY OF RESULTS. 40

6

CHAPTER PAGE

III. CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION. 44

A. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND 45

B. CURRENT PROGRAMS IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION. 53

1. Introduction 53
2. Certification 55
3. Associate Degree Programs 57
4. Bachelor's Degree Programs. 64
5. Graduate Degree Programs. 69

C. LEEP PARTICIPANT EDUCATION PROGRAM OFFERINGS. 76

1. Analysis of Participant Institutions. 77
2. Types of Criminal Justice Programs Covered. 79
3. Current Trends in Criminal Justice Programs 82
4. Types of Courses Offered. 83
5. Academic Course Offerings Within Degree Programs. 83
6. Course Enrollments 87
7. Conclusions 90

D. FIELD ANALYSIS OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROGRAMS 91

1. Advisory Boards 92
2. Class Scheduling. 92
3. Credit for Training and Experience in Criminal Justice Degree Programs 93
4. Placement Services. 95
5. Internships 95
6. Relationships with Criminal Justice Agencies and Other Academic Institutions 99
7. Student Enrollment. 104
8. Program Faculty 109

E. RECOMMENDATIONS 121

1. Curriculum Development. .121
2. Recognition of Training and Experience. 121
3. Internship Programs 122
4. Instructional Personnel .122
5. Course Administration 122

NOTES AND REFERENCES. 124

IV. THE LAW ENFORCEMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM 127

A. OVERVIEW OF THE LAW ENFORCEMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM 128

1. Objectives of the Program 128
2. Legislative and Administrative History. 129

    3. Current Status of the Program 135

B. IMPACT OF LEEP ON EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT 136

    1. Recent Trends in Educational Attainment 137
    2. Estimation of the Net Impact of LEEP 138

C. THE QUALITY OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS 148

    1. Criteria for Evaluating Program Quality 149
    2. Review of Program Quality 150

D. THE ALLOCATION OF PROGRAM FUNDING 166

    1. The Allocation of Funding Among LEAA Regions and States 166
    2. The Allocation of Funding Among Institutions and Students 171
    3. The Allocation of LEEP Funds Among Criminal Justice Personnel 172

E. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 179
    1. Results of the Analysis 180
    2. Recommendations 182

NOTES AND REFERENCES 187

V. MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND EDUCATION 190

A. THE CRITICAL ROLE OF MANAGEMENT 190

B. MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND EDUCATION PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT 192

    1. Functional Skills 192
    2. Private and Public Approaches to Management Training and Education 195
    3. Productivity and Performance Evaluation as a Training Objective 197
    4. Personnel Management and Collective Bargaining 198

C. CONTENT OF MANAGEMENT EDUCATION AND TRAINING PROGRAMS 206

D. CURRICULUM CONSIDERATIONS 211

E. QUANTITATIVE FACTORS IN PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT FOR MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND EDUCATION 222

F. QUALITATIVE FACTORS IN MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND EDUCATION 225

    1. Quality of Management Training Materials, Methods, and Instructors 225
    2. Program Proliferation 228

3. Standards for Management Training and Education. 229
4. The Role of the University 230
5. Lateral Entry of Executives. 232

G. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS. 235

NOTES AND REFERENCES 241

VI. PROGRAMS OF THE FEDERAL BUREAU OF INVESTIGATION 246

A. THE NATIONAL ACADEMY. 247

1. The Enrollees 248
2. The Program 254
3. Instructional Personnel 257
4. Conclusions 259

B. SPECIALIZED COURSES 259

C. FIELD TRAINING 261

D. NATIONAL EXECUTIVE INSTITUTE. 264

E. COSTS OF THE FBI TRAINING PROGRAMS. 266

1. The National Academy 266
2. Specialized Courses at the FBI Academy. 269
3. Field Training 269
4. Summary of the Results. 271

F. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 271

NOTES AND REFERENCES 273

PART 2.

VII. LAW ENFORCEMENT TRAINING ACADEMIES. 274

A. UTILIZATION OF ACADEMIES BY AGENCY SIZE AND BY STATE. 277

1. Distribution of Academy Utilization by Size of Agency 278
2. Distribution of Academies by State. 280

B. CHARACTERISTICS OF ACADEMY PROGRAMS 282

1. Duration and Content of Entry-Level Training. 283
2. Coverage of Topics in In-Service Training 288

3. Facilities. 290
4. Instructors 290
5. Funding Sources 290

C. COMPARISON OF THE CURRENT STATUS OF LAW ENFORCEMENT TRAINING ACADEMIES WITH DESIRED STANDARDS. 294

1. Teaching Techniques 294
2. Performance Objectives. 298
3. "Stress" Training 301
4. Field Training 303
5. Class Size 307
6. Instructor Training 308

D. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 309

NOTES AND REFERENCES. 313a

VIII. LAW SCHOOLS 314

A. THE HISTORY OF LEGAL EDUCATION FOR ADMISSION TO THE BAR. 315

B. PRESENT STATUS OF THE LAW SCHOOL CURRICULUM 318

1. Bar Admission and the Law School Curriculum 318
2. Law Students and Bar Admissions 320
3. Law School Goals and Procedures 321
4. Current Quantitative Status of Criminal Justice in the Law School Curriculum 324
5. Institutional Barriers to Change. 327

C. THE DEFENSE AND PROSECUTION PERSPECTIVE ON THE QUALITY OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE LEGAL EDUCATION 330

1. The Quality of the Criminal Justice Curriculum. 330
2. A Qualitative "Model" for the Criminal Justice Curriculum 336
3. The Future of the Model Curriculum. 342

D. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 343

1. Law Schools, Continuing Legal Education, and Bar Admission 346
2. Prospects for Change. 347
3. Recommendations 350

NOTES AND REFERENCES 355

IX. CONTINUING LEGAL EDUCATION FOR CRIMINAL LAW PRACTITIONERS 362a

- A. BACKGROUND OF CONTINUING LEGAL EDUCATION IN CRIMINAL LAW 363
- B. CURRENT STATUS OF CONTINUING LEGAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS 368
  - 1. The CLE Context for Criminal Law Courses 368
  - 2. Present Needs and Resources of Criminal Law CLE 372
  - 3. Present Status of Criminal Law CLE 382
- C. LOOKING TO THE FUTURE: TRENDS IN CLE 384
  - 1. Mandatory CLE 385
  - 2. Specialization 387
  - 3. Trial-Advocate Specialization 389
  - 4. The Legal-Services Delivery System 393
- D. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 393
- NOTES AND REFERENCES 400

X. PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN CORRECTIONS 407

- A. INTRODUCTION 407
- B. SOCIAL WORK 408
- C. OTHER ACADEMIC PROGRAMS PROVIDING PROFESSIONAL MANPOWER FOR CORRECTIONS 429
  - 1. Psychology 429
  - 2. Sociology/Criminology 432
  - 3. Rehabilitation Counselor. 439
- D. VOLUNTEERS AND PROFESSIONALS. 443
- E. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 446
- NOTES AND REFERENCES 452

APPENDICES 455

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY 552

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLES

TABLE PAGE

II-1 Federal Outlays for the Reduction of Crime, by Major Programs, by Activity, and by Level of Government, Fiscal Year 1975 21

II-2 Federal Outlays for the Education and Training of State-Local Employees of the Criminal Justice System, Fiscal Year 1975. 22

II-3 Estimated LEAA Expenditures for the Education and Training of State and Local Criminal Justice Personnel, Fiscal Year 1975. 30

II-4 Number of Veterans and Veterans Receiving Education or Training Benefits Under the GI Bill, by Service Period and by Type of Training, June 1974 through June 1975 31

II-5 Number of Veterans Receiving Educational Benefits and Total and Average Benefits Paid, by Type, Fiscal Year 1975 . 33

II-6 Estimated VA Benefits Paid to Veterans for Criminal Justice Education and Training, Fiscal Year 1975 37

II-7 Number of Trainees and Estimated Direct Expenses of the Drug Enforcement Administration for the Training and Education of State and Local Enforcement Officers, Fiscal Year 1975. 38

II-8 Expenditures for Education and Training of State and Local Criminal Justice Personnel as Estimated by OMB and NMS, by Agency, Fiscal Year 1975. 39

III-1 Institutions with Crime-Related Degree Programs, Among LEEP Participants, 1972-73 50

III-2 Bachelor's Degrees Conferred by Institutions of Higher Education by Sex of Student and by Field of Study, 1971-72. 52

III-3 Number of Public and Private Institutions Receiving LEEP Funding, 1975-76 78

III-4 Number of Institutions Offering at Least One Criminal Justice Program, 1972-76 78

III-5 Criminal Justice Programs by Subject Matter and Degree Level Academic Year 1975-76. 80

TABLE PAGE

III-6 Distribution of Major Areas of Emphasis and Type of Degrees in Criminal Justice Programs (1971-1972 to 1975-1976) 84

III-7 Percentage Distribution of Criminal Justice Courses Offered by Type of School, Academic Year 1975-76 85

III-8 Percentage Distribution of Academic Courses within Degree Programs, Academic Year 1975-76. 86

III-9 Number of Students Enrolled, by State and by Degree Program, Academic Year 1975-76 88

III-10 College Successes in Placement Efforts in the Last Two Years (1973-75) with Criminal Justice Agencies 96

III-11 Existence of an Internship Program that Places Students in Criminal Justice Agencies 98

III-12 Types of Criminal Justice Agencies in Which Interns Are Placed 98

III-13 Respondtnts' Evaluations of the Relationship between Their Program Offerings and Local Criminal Justice Agencies 100

III-14 Comparison of the Percentage of 1974-75 Pre-Service Women Criminal Justice Majors with the 1972-73 Academic Year . . 106

III-15 Comparison of the Percentage of 1974-74 Pre-Service Minority Criminal Justice Majors with the 1972-73 Academic Year 107

III-16 Average Total Cost of a Criminal Justice Field Program, 1973-75. 115

IV-1 Educational Attainment of Sworn Police Personnel, 1960-74. 138

IV-2 The Educational Attainment of Sworn Police Personnel in 1974 Compared with the Attainment that Would Have Been Expected on the Basis of 1960-70 Trends. 140

IV-3 College Degrees Earned by Two Entry Cohorts of Sworn Law Enforcement Officers During Comparable Periods Following Their Entry. 145

IV-4 College Degrees Earned by Two Entry Cohorts of Custodial Personnel in Corrections during Comparable Periods Following Their Entry. 146

TABLE		PAGE
IV-5	Estimated Attrition for Police Officers for Selected Years, 1959-1974	147
IV-6	Selected Law Enforcement Education Program Guidelines. . .	151
IV-7	Criminal Justice-Related Courses that Are Training in Nature Offered by LEEP-Supported Institutions, by Field Emphases of the Courses, Academic Year 1975-76	152
IV-8	Criminal Justice-Related Courses that Are Training In Nature Offered by LEEP Institutions, by Type of Institution, Academic Year 1975-76.	154
IV-9	Full-Time Faculty Members with At Least A Master's Degree in Criminal Justice Programs at LEEP-Supported Institutions, by Type of Institution, Academic Year 1975-76 . . .	155
IV-10	Part-Time Justice FAculty Members with At Least A Master's Degree in Criminal Justice At LEEP-Supported Institutions, by Type of Institution, Academic Year 1975-76.	156
IV-11	Criminal Justice Faculty Members with At Least A Master's Degree At LEEP-Supported Institutions Compared with All All Faculty Members At All Institutions, by Type of Institutions	158
IV-12	LEEP-Supported Institutions with Criminal Justice Programs That Have At Least One Full-Time Faculty Member, by Type of Institution, Academic Year 1975-76.	159
IV-13	Full-Time and Part-Time Faculty Members in the Criminal Justice Programs of LEEP-Supported Institutions, by Type of Institution, Academic Year 1976-76.	160
IV-14	Relative Incidence of Full-Time Faculty Members in the Criminal Justice Programs of LEEP-Supported Institutions Compared with All Colleges and Universities, by Type of Institution.	162
IV-15	Percentage Distribution of the Ratios of All Students Enrolled in Criminal Justice Degree Programs to Full-Time Criminal Justice Faculty Members in LEEP-Supported Institutions, by Type of Institution, Academic Year 1975-76 . .	163
IV-16	Allocation of LEEP Funds Compared with the Distribution of Criminal Justice System Personnel, by LEAA Region and State.	167
IV-17	Allocation of LEEP Funds Compared with the Mean of Overall Population and Criminal Justice Personnel, by LEAA Region and State	169
IV-18	Distribution of LEEP-Supported Institutions, by Type, Academic Year 1975-76.	171

TABLE		PAGE
IV-19	Distribution of LEEP-Funded Students Compared with the Allocation of LEEP Funds, by Type of Institution, Academic Year 1974-75.	173
IV-20	Distribution by Sector of Criminal Justice System Personnel Who Have Received LEEP Support, October 1974. . . .	174
IV-21	Incidence of Receipt of LEEP Assistance Among Criminal Justice System Personnel, by Sector, October 1974.	175
IV-22	Incidence of Receipt of LEEP Assistance Among Criminal Justice System Personnel, by Sector, Occupation, Sex, and Race, October 1974	176
V-1	Collective Bargaining Agreements Among Police and Firefighters	201
V-2	Collective Bargining Agreement Areas for Police and Firefighters	202
V-3	Training and Education Provisions in Police and Fire Agreements, 1972-73.	204
V-4	Areas of Management Interest in the Collective Bargaining Process.	205
V-5	Middle Level Law Enforcement Managers Judgments on Best Way to Lear Certain Critical Tasks	212
V-6	Illustrative Model of Supervisory and Executive Management Programs for Management Activity	221
V-7	Management Personnel by Jurisdiction	223
V-8	Percent of Law Enforcement Managers by Size of Agency. . .	223
VI-1	Occupational Characteristics of FBI National Academy Students, 1974-75.	251
VI-2	Distribution of FBI National Academy Students by Size of Agency Compared with the Distribution of All Sworn Law Enforcement Employees by Agency Size, 1974	252
VI-3	Distribution of FBI National Academy Students by Type of Agency Compared with the Distribution of All Law Enforcement Personnel by Type of Agency	253
VI-4	Distribution of FBI National Academy Students by State and Census Region Compared with the Distribution of the Police Population by State and Region, 1974-74	255
VI-5	Academic Course Offerings and Instructor Qualifications in the FBI National Academy, by Department, 1975	258

TABLE PAGE

VI-6 Curricula of the First Class of the National Executive Institute: March 25-September 12, 1976 265

VI-7 Estimated Cost of Each Student at the National Academy, FY 1975 268

VI-8 Estimated Cost Per Student for Attendance at a One-Week Special Course at the FBI Academy, FY 1975. 270

VI-9 Estimated FBI Training Expenditures, FY 1975. 272

VII-1 Percentage Distributon of Agencies by Type of Law Enforcement Academies Used for Entry-Level Training, by Agency Size, 1975. 279

VII-2 Distribution of Law Enforcement Academies by State/Region and by Type of Academy. 281

VII-3 Duration of Entry-Level Training, by Type of Academy, 1975. 284

VII-4 Mean Number of Hours Provided for Recruit Training, by Academy Size and Type 286

VII-5 Time Allotted to Various Topics in Entry-Level Training Programs, 1975 287

VII-6 Number of Academies Offering In-Service Training, and Number of Courses Offered, by Subject, 1975 289

VII-7 Percentage of Academies with Various Facilities, by Type and Size of Academy, 1975 291

VII-8 Full-Time Instructors as a Percentage of All Instructors, by Agency Type, 1975. 292

VII-9 Percentage of Academies Receiving Funding from State or Federal Sources, by Type of Academy 293

VII-10 Teaching Techniques Used by Law Enforcement Academies, 1965. 295

VII-11 Use of the Lecture Method as the Primary Training Technique, by Subject Area 296

VII-12 Use of Student-Oriented Techniques as Primary Mode of Instruction, by Subject Area. 297

VII-13 Proportion of Academies Utilizing Testing Procedures. . . . 300

VII-14 Percent of Law Enforcement Academies Using Stress Training. 304

TABLE PAGE

VII-15 Percentage of Academies Offering Field Training, by Accademy Size and Type . . . 305

VII-16 Percentage Distribution of the Average Size of Recruit Training Classes, by Type of Academy, 1975 . . . 307

VII-17 Length of Training Provided by Academies to New Full-Time Instructors. . . . 310

VIII-1 Bar Examination Requirements in 43 States . . . 320

VIII-2 Incidence of Different Types of Specialized Criminal Justice Courses Among Law Schools. . . . 326

IX-1 1975 CLE Courses Reported to ALI-ABA Catalog and Surve . . . 373

IX-1 Approved Schools of Social Work in the United States, Number of Criminal Justice Related Courses Offered, Number of Field Placements in Criminal Justice, Specialization in Corrections Offered: 1974 . . . 410

X-2 Relationship Between the Number of Criminal Justice Courses Offered and the Presence of an Area of Specialization in Corrections in Social Work Schools, Academic Year 1974-75. . . 413

X-3 Courses in Social Work Related to Criminal Justice/ Corrections, Indicating a Concentration in Corrections, Academic Year 1974-75. . . . 415

X-4 Numbers and Percentages of Graduate Social Work Students Entering Corrections/ Criminal Justice Agencies for Field Placement, Academic Year 1971-74 . . . 417

X-5 Relationship between the Proportion of Students Placed by Social Work Schools in Corrections/Criminal Justice Agencies and the Presence of an Area of Specialization in Corrections in the Academic Program, Academic Year 1973-74 . . . 418

X-6 Numbers and Percentages of Graduate Social-Work Students in the Several Areas of Concentration, Academic Year 1972-74. . 422

X-7 Distribution of Second-Year Graduate Social Work Students by Area of Concentration, and by Whether or Not A Concentration in Corrections is Offered: 1974. . . . 423

X-8 Number of Graduate Social Work Degrees Awarded, Academic Years, 1971-74 . . . 425

X-9 The Highest Degree Held by Correctional Personnel with A Degree in Higher Education, 1974 . . . 427

X-10 American Colleges and Universities Offering Courses in Crime and Delinquency in Departments of Psychology, 1971 . . 430

TABLE PAGE

X-11 Graduate Programs in Criminlogy/Sociology Related to Criminal Justice: Academic Year 1975-76 434

X-12 Number of Graduate Criminology Programs Receiving Law Enforcement Education Program Funds Academic Years 1972-76 435

CHART

III-1 CJ Academic Program Administrators' Recommendations for Federal Funding Agencies 117

III-2 CJ Academic Program Administrators' Recommendations for State Funding Agencies and the Funding of LEEP 118

III-3 CJ Academic Program Administrators' Recommendations for the Funding of LEEP. 118

V-3 Percent of Law Enforcement and Corrections Executives with College Degrees 219

FIGURE

VI-1 Local Police Training Schools. 262

PREFACE

The National Manpower Survey of the Criminal Justice System is an LEAA-funded study conducted in response to a Congressional requirement, under the 1973 Crime Control Act, for a survey of personnel training and education needs in the fields of law enforcement and criminal justice, and of the adequacy of federal, state, and local programs to meet these needs.

This volume on the assessment of criminal justice education and training programs is one of a series of eight volumes (listed below) which comprise the full report of the National Manpower Survey. The overall scope of the study, including descriptions of methodology and data sources, is contained in the Summary Report (Volume I) and--in more detail--in Volumes VI, VII, and VIII. Separate assessments of the education and training needs of the personnel in the three sectors of the criminal justice system--law enforcement, corrections, and courts--are contained in Volumes II, III, and IV respectively.

The six volumes published on the study are:

- Volume I (Summary Report)
- Volume II (Law Enforcement)
- Volume III (Corrections)
- Volume IV (Courts)
- Volume V (Education and Training)
- Volume VI (Manpower Planning)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We wish to express our thanks to the directors of criminal justice programs in colleges and universities and members of their staffs who gave generously of their time in answering our field interview questionnaires and in discussing with us the educational issues and problems which now face them. We also appreciate the cooperation given to us by directors of training academies with whom we met to learn about course objectives, course content and problems of training administration.

From time to time we called expert panels together consisting of leading criminal justice educators and directors of aggressive training programs. We found these discussions to be forthright with much insight on education and training trends for the future. We met also with deans and faculties of law schools and other legal educators and with deans of social work to probe carefully problems of professional education. We wish to thank them for their frankness in discussing issues and providing us with their concepts of the interrelation of their professional education programs with criminal justice education.

We wish to thank also criminal justice executives in law enforcement, corrections, the prosecutors and defenders for responding to our executive questionnaire which helped us immeasurably in relating their concerns to the education and training needs for the future.

Finally we desire to acknowledge the services rendered to us by the educational and training staff of the FBI Academy for providing to us information about the Academy programs for state and local law enforcement personnel.

The burden of distilling the essential data on education and training, analyzing the results and preparing the final chapters of this volume fell upon the professional research staff of the National Planning Association. The number of chapters to be written and the diversity of the subject matter required a team effort which was headed by Frank McKernan with James D. Stinchcomb as principal consultant. The following individuals were responsible for the development and preparation of the chapters of this volume: Chapter II, Robert W. Rafuse, Jr., and Thomas Smith; Chapter III, Michael Genz and Jeanne Stinchcomb; Chapter IV, Robert W. Rafuse, Jr. and Michael Genz; Chapter V, Frank McKernan; Chapter VI, Robert W. Rafuse, Jr. and Michael Genz; Chapter VII, Robert W. Rafuse, Jr., Michael Genz and Rigney Hill; Chapters VIII and IX, Neal Miller; and Chapter X, Paul Radtke.

To our senior business and administrative staff, we owe our special thanks for their professional zeal in the following critical areas:

Loraine Halsey for managing the administrative and financial services and programming the allocation of personnel and monies necessary to complete this volume, and;

Elizabeth McGovern for building the research library facilities and for providing thorough research services and individual research assistance to the entire professional staff, including the development of the references and bibliography for this volume.

The productivity of our administrative staff over long days and weekends to see this document through initial and subsequent drafts and editing to final copy is reflected in their total dedication to the tough tasks which they tackled with unfailingly good spirit. We owe special gratitude and respect to: Violet Barnes, Mary Joan McDuffie, Cynthia Payne, Jacqueline Rupel, Lorraine Staliper, and Margaret Takenaka.

INTRODUCTION

This volume discusses and assesses the institutional training and education programs and the federal support and other resources available to assist in the growth and development of the skills and knowledge of personnel in the three sectors of the criminal justice system.

Training and education is also discussed in Volumes II, III, and IV of this report. The approach in these three volumes is primarily one based upon agency needs and agency programs, especially entry-level and in-service, designed to provide for occupational growth in key positions from the agency perspective. Thus Volume II addresses law enforcement officers and Volume III covers correctional personnel. Volume IV focuses on prosecutors, defenders, judges, and court administrators. All these volumes discuss the growth in education and training of these criminal justice personnel, but assess future needs from the point of view of the agencies in which they are employed.

This volume directs its attention to institutional and governmental resources which can help to fulfill agency needs. It assesses the institutional support provided from outside activities such as the FBI academy and the community colleges, 4-year colleges and universities and graduate schools.

It discussess and assesses the LEEP program and the resources it provides. It includes a separate chapter on management education and training program development for law enforcement and corrections mid-level managers and executives.

Additionally, it assesses the activities of local, regional, and state training academies as institutions which provide entry-level training principally to law enforcement personnel.

Finally, Volume V assesses the educational programs in the following selected group of professional and graduate schools or activities which support the courts and correctional systems: law schools, continuing legal education, social work, psychology, sociology/criminology, and rehabilitation counseling.

In summary, Volumes II, III, IV assess manpower, education, and training needs from the agency perspective. This volume assesses the institutional programs and resources in terms of meeting agency requirements for appropriate educational and training support.

CHAPTER I. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

A. OVERVIEW OF FEDERAL PROGRAMS

- *Federal government financial assistance for specialized training and education of employees--or potential employees--of state and local criminal justice agencies is provided in several different forms.* These include: (1) direct LEAA financial assistance to training and educational programs, including LEEP, the Educational Development Program, internship programs, and discretionary grants; (2) expenditures by state agencies funded by LEAA block grants; (3) direct provision of training to state and local employees, mainly by the FBI Academy; and (4) veterans' readjustment benefits for education and training of students enrolled in criminal justice-related education and training programs.

- *LEAA direct and indirect expenditures for training and education are estimated at about $80 million in FY 1975, or 9 percent of total LEAA outlays in FY 1975.* These include both expenditures for LEEP and other assistance programs directly funded by LEAA and estimates of the amount of LEAA block grants expended for these purposes by state agencies.

- *FBI expenditures for training of state and local law enforcement officers totaled $16 million in FY 1975.* This estimate includes training at the National Academy and special FBI schools and field training programs for state and local police personnel.

- *Veterans' readjustment benefits to students enrolled in criminal justice education and training programs are estimated at $128 million in FY 1975.*

This is a necessarily rough approximation since only partial data are available on the fields of specialization of recipients of veterans' educational benefits. Alternative estimates cited range from $73 million to $147 million.

· *Aggregate expenditures by all federal agencies, for these programs, are estimated at about $225 million.* The NMS estimate is higher than an unpublished OMB estimate of about $150 million, mainly because the OMB estimate understates the number of criminal justice majors receiving veterans' allowances and excludes outlays for training and education by states from LEAA block grant funds. This estimate, moreover, excludes any allowance for expenditures by state and local governments for criminal justice training or education from general revenue sharing funds, which could add $25 to $40 million to this total.

B. CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION

· *There has been a ten-fold increase in criminal justice educational programs within a single decade.* The first directory of higher educational programs (IACP) in 1965 reported the existence of 125 such programs which include each associate, bachelor's, master's, and doctorate degree as "one" program. In 1975, the directory reported 1,245 programs.

· *This rapid expansion has brought substantial problems, associated with the absence in criminal justice higher education of a clearly defined body of knowledge or a set of goals or perspectives.* Program quality has suffered from a rapid proliferation of programs without an established system of goals and objectives. Lack of articulation between the goals of community colleges and four-year colleges, and lack of differentiation between training courses and educational programs have been additional major problem areas.

- *Bachelor degree programs have accounted for a growing share of all LEEP-funded criminal justice programs in the past five years.* The proportion of four-year degree programs rose from 24 percent in 1972 to 32 percent in 1976. However, 50 percent of all programs in 1976 were still at the associate Degree level. Only 2 percent of programs, in both 1972 and 1976, were at the doctorate level.

- *Community college programs, which have experienced rapid growth, are still centered predominantly on the law enforcement curriculum.* The two-year schools have attracted large enrollments of in-service police officers, especially from city departments, as well as a marked growth in pre-service students. More criminal justice and corrections courses are beginning to appear in curriculum offerings, but the basic orientation to law enforcement continues. This is also reflected in the staff qualifications.

- *The four-year level criminal justice programs give some evidence of curriculum maturation, but variations among institutions indicate that the problem still has not been resolved.* The core of the problem is whether an institution has made a true commitment to criminal justice higher education through adequate resources and faculty, and with a true interdisciplinary approach which supports the professional criminal justice courses. Criminal justice programs appear only to have begun to define their real academic territory.

- *Graduate programs need increased emphasis.* The challenge to graduate programs in criminal justice will be to prepare students for management planning, policy-making, and research positions within criminal justice organizations, and for teaching positions in academic institutions. The complexities of modern management in criminal justice, particularly among larger organizations, compel current and future managers to have a technical working knowledge of budget management, systems analysis, labor relations, personnel management, race relations, and other functional areas. A balance is needed between the practitioner-oriented instructor and the instructor with substantial criminal justice research background. Graduate programs will also need to reflect changes in criminal justice programs and strategies, to ensure that tomorrow's needs will be recognized in timely graduate program offerings.

- *A variety of institutional arrangements have been made to facilitate student participation in criminal justice education, and to better adapt programs to student needs.* Community colleges have offered more courses on alternating time schedules and off-campus. Four-year institutions have been less flexible in this respect but offer more independent study course options. Policies for awarding credit for training and career experience have been liberalized. Most institutions offer some internship programs but these often suffer from inadequate agency supervision and in proper intern evaluation procedures.

- *Criminal justice educators are moving toward the adoption of a system of accreditation to raise the quality of criminal justice higher education and assure articulation and cooperation among training academies, community colleges, and universities.* Currently the Accreditation and Standards Committee of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences is engaged in proposing accreditation guidelines for postsecondary institutions with criminal justice programs. The approach has a systems orientation which attempts to delineate responsibilities of various institutions, program offerings, and academic administration through standards aimed at increasing the quality of all criminal justice programs.

· *Formal accreditation could also improve faculty standards.* The Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences recommends a minimum of a law or master's degree for undergraduate faculty and a doctorate for graduate faculty. Academic institutions give higher orders of priority in faculty procurement to academic credentials and relevance of academic field to criminal justice than to prior teaching or research experience. Full-time faculty are generally rated superior to part-time, in level of academic degree, teaching ability, student advising/counseling, and program knowledge. Part-time faculty are considered better in knowledge of the criminal justice system and criminal justice experience.

C. THE LEEP PROGRAM

· *The Law Enforcement Education Programs (LEEP) was initiated in 1968 as a means of raising the educational level of law enforcement and other criminal justice personnel, through provision of financial assistance in the form of student grants and loans.* Assistance is limited to students enrolled in degree programs in criminal justice or a related field. Through FY 1976, LEEP appropriations totaling $234 million, have provided assistance to about 250,000 students enrolled in about 1,800 educational institutions.

· *The LEEP program appears to have contributed significantly to the rapid improvement in educational level of police officers in the period 1970-74, as compared with the trend of the preceding decade.* The proportion of police officers who had completed at least one year of college rose from 20 percent in 1960 and 32 percent in 1970 to 46 percent in 1974. Over 40,000 more police officers had completed some college by 1974 than would have been expected based on continuation of the 1960-70 trend. An analysis of the proportions of police and correctional officers who had earned degrees during the preceding 10-year period also indicates a sharp increase in the proportion who received such degrees during 1970-74, as compared with 1965-69, after controlling for length of service. Although these data clearly suggest a significant contribution by LEEP to educational upgrading, these analyses could not fully control for such related factors as the increase in educational level of new recruits into police departments during 1970-74 (some of whom may also have been LEEP assisted), and for the concurrent rapid growth of veterans readjustment benefits for education and training, which was also available to many criminal justice personnel.

- *The quality of many LEEP-funded criminal justice programs appears to be seriously deficient in a number of respects.* Although LEAA guidelines have emphasized "education" rather than specialized skill training as the primary goal of these programs, nearly 15 percent of all criminal justice-related courses in LEEP supported institutions, and 35 percent of those in law enforcement, were found to be specialized training-type courses. About 23 percent of all faculty members in criminal justice programs had no advanced degrees, as contrasted to only 7 percent in all higher education institutions. Only 42 percent of faculty members in LEEP-supported programs were full time, as compared with 76 percent in all institutions. Finally, only about 40 percent of LEEP-supported programs met the LEEP guidelines providing for a ratio of 60 students per faculty member, in full-time equivalents.

- *Police officers and probation and parole officers have utilized LEEP assistance to a much greater extent than employees of correctional institutions.* About 26 percent of probation/parole employees and 24 percent of police employees had received some LEEP assistance as compared with only 14 percent of correctional employees. The relatively low proportion of correctional employees utilizing LEEP is probably due to a number of factors, including the larger proportion of non-high school graduates among correctional officers, their higher average age, the isolated location of many correctional institutions, the lesser incentives offered by correctional agencies for continuing education and the fact that most criminal justice programs are police-oriented.

- *Minority employees have participated in LEEP in about the same proportions in each major agency or occupational category as have other employees.* Women employees, however, have had consistently lower LEEP utilization, partly due to their concentration in non-line occupations.

- *Major NMS recommendations of LEEP include more vigorous enforcement of qualitative standards for institutional qualification and reallocation of LEEP funds for use in several priority areas.* The latter include graduate education, doctoral dissertation grants, increased emphasis on management education, increased emphasis on educational programs for correctional officers, and selective easing of current policies precluding use of LEEP for pre-service students, where local needs--including needs for more minority employees--can clearly justify such assistance.

D. MANAGEMENT TRAINING

- *About 50,000 managerial-level personnel were employed in state and local law enforcement and correctional agencies (including probation and parole) in 1974.* These personnel collectively were responsible for expenditures in excess of $10 billion in FY 1974, and for supervision of over 800,000 personnel. The increased size and complexity of these organizations, and mounting pressures for accountability, have increased the need for management training.

- *Management training needs vary widely depending upon agency size, function, and jurisdiction.* While 20 percent of managerial-level personnel in law enforcement were in agencies with 1,000 or more employees, an additional 24 percent supervised very small agencies with less than 10 employees. Among correctional executives and administrators, over 50 percent were in state institutions and agencies, 34 percent in county agencies, and 14 percent in municipal agencies.

- *Personnel management and budget management were among the highest priorities reported by law enforcement and correctional executives for functional management training.* Other areas emphasized in NMS surveys include community relations, legal subjects, labor relations, and race relations. Probation and parole officers, reflecting their different job demands, gave highest priority to courses in community resource development, counseling, community relations, and personnel management.

- *Productivity and performance evaluation is a major emerging concern in law enforcement.* Recent budgetary pressures have resulted in increased emphasis on productivity improvement, and the need for management knowledge and application of productivity measurement techniques.

- *The rapid growth of unionism among police employees and--to a lesser extent--among correctional employees requires expanded training in public sector collective bargaining for police and correctional managers.* About one-half of police executives, in agencies with 10 or more employees, and of executives of adult correctional institutions reported that additional training in this subject was needed. The need is for programs combining both the pre-negotiation and negotiation process, and for the conduct of employee relations under a collective bargaining agreement.

- *New approaches to management training developed by large corporate enterprises may have applicability to training of criminal justice executives.* Emphasis has been placed on programs focusing on the organization's own policies, programs and procedures, rather than on more generalized course content. Increased recognition has also been given to the concept of participatory management, in contrast to traditional hierarchical management concepts.

- *The critical role of management training, in upgrading performance of criminal justice agencies, points to the need for federal support of new institutional arrangements to provide such training as part of an integrated, comprehensive program.* Regional criminal justice management training centers or institutes appear to be preferable for this purpose, to either a national institute or localized centers. These centers should be initially funded by the federal government, but with provisions for increased support by state or local agencies. Integrated programs and curricula should be developed meeting needs of both mid-level and executive personnel.

E. FBI TRAINING PROGRAMS

- *The FBI makes a major contribution to training of police officers of state and local agencies through four programs.* These include the 11-week National Academy course for mid-level police officers, short police training courses at the National Academy in special subjects, field training programs, and a recently organized National Executive Institute.

- *The standard National Academy Course has trained about 1,000 police officers per year in the past several years.* Course content has been modified since 1968 to include greater emphasis on social science and management subjects. Enrollees are drawn disproportionately from smaller agencies, and from the more rural regions of the country. The total direct cost of training provided at the Academy to state and local personnel is estimated at $5.3 million in FY 1975. The aggregate cost, including background investigations and transportation, was nearly $8 million.

- *Special, short-courses offered at the FBI Academy provide advanced training in traditional police fields, as well as numerous specialized courses in topical problems.* Subjects covered include such topics as white collar crime, forensic science, instructor development, hostage negotiations, crisis intervention, management, and major case investigation. The total cost of special courses was $2.7 million in fiscal year 1975.

- *Field training services are provided to state and local agencies, utilizing FBI special agents of whom about 2,000 are certified as instructors.* Attendees at these courses totalled 320,000 in fiscal year 1975, at over 10,500 locations and at an estimated cost of $5.3 million.

- *The National Executive Institute program was initiated in 1976 to provide training for top management of law enforcement agencies.* The first program, geared to major management and policy issues, consisted of a series of four-day sessions, scheduled to minimize executives' time away from their agencies. Four programs are planned per year.

- *The FBI programs have made a unique contribution to meeting training needs of mid-level law enforcement personnel in the smaller and medium-sized agencies.* The new National Executive Institute can complement the broader management training programs proposed elsewhere in this report for all categories of criminal justice personnel.

F. LAW ENFORCEMENT ACADEMIES

- *About 800 academies provide recruit training and in-service training to police officers in state and local agencies.* The three major categories of academies are (1) agency affiliated academies; (2) state or regional academies, and (3) academies-affiliated with academic institutions, such as community colleges.

- *Whereas most large police departments operate their own academies, smaller departments mainly rely on other sources of training, including academies of other departments, state or regional academies or academically-affiliated academies.*

- *Average course lengths for recruit training vary by size and type of academy.* As compared to a minimum standard of 400 hours, recommended by the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (NAC), course lengths averaged 494 hours for agency-affiliated academies, 382 hours for state and regional academies, and 292 hours in academically-affiliated academies. These are weighted averages, based on a survey of 236 academies, conducted by the National Association of State Directors of Law Enforcement Training (NASDLET), in cooperation with the NMS.

- *Course coverage in recruit training emphasizes procedural aspects of police officer duties.* Major priority areas, in terms of course lengths, include patrol procedures, investigative methods, legal subjects, and criminal evidence. Subjects such as the officer role in the community and problems of juveniles are given less emphasis than recommended in studies by National Commissions.

- *In-service training courses are also offered by nine out of ten of the academies surveyed.* Courses most frequently offered are criminal law, criminal investigation, and weapons training.

- *Academies rely predominantly on part-time instructors.* Only 21 percent of all instructors in the academies surveyed held full-time training positions. Length of instructor training is limited and normally does not include subject matter dealing with broader crime-related community or social problems.

- *Although field training has been strongly recommended as a supplement to classroom academy instruction, such training was only provided by 35 percent of the academies surveyed.* Many of the programs offered, moreover, appeared to require better organization and better trained field instructor personnel.

- *Class sizes exceeded the recommended standard of 25 trainees per class in about half of the academies surveyed.* State and regional academies reported the largest class sizes among the three major categories of academies.

- *The lecture method was the predominant teaching method in more than 90 percent of the academies surveyed.* Use of more advanced teaching methods, providing for more active student participation and self-paced instruction, is still infrequent.

- *In view of the projected reduction in overall requirements for new police recruits, NMS recommends that major program emphasis in LEAA and state* *support of academies be placed upon qualitative improvements.* These include provisions to upgrade training provided for officers of the smaller agencies, increased course emphasis on juvenile problems and related community-relations issues, provision for regional instructor training centers, and other approaches to broadening and modernizing course content and training methods.

G. LAW SCHOOLS

- *Law schools are virtually the sole source of basic professional education for judges, prosecutors, defenders and other legal personnel in criminal justice agencies.* However, of an estimated total of 385,000 lawyers in 1974, probably only about 15 percent were engaged in criminal law practice, as private defenders, or in public agencies, on either a part-time or full-time basis.

- *Law school educational goals are designed to equip graduates with basic legal skills and knowledge required for legal practice.* Emphasis is placed on legal analytical skills and processes, rather than procedural aspects of legal practice or on specialized knowledge of particular subject areas. Thus limited attention is given to pretrial procedures, development of evidence or inter-personnel skills.

- *Criminal law and related criminal justice courses accounted for only about six percent of non-seminar law school courses, and for about 12 percent of seminar courses in 1975.* Despite recent increases in coverage of such subjects as juvenile justice and corrections, advanced law school courses continue to be strongly oriented to civil practice. Thus business law courses account for 25 percent of all courses in 1975.

- *Criminal justice courses accounted, however, for almost 65 percent of all clinical courses in 125 of the law schools studied.* This appears to reflect greater readiness of criminal justice agencies to accept criminal justice students. Clinical faculty members tend to have a stronger criminal justice orientation. However, they are not normally part of the tenured faculty of law schools.

- *Major deficiencies of existing law school programs in meeting the needs of criminal justice practice include inadequate coverage of criminal procedures and of the institutional context of criminal law practice.* A "model" curriculum, designed to illustrate a desirable sequence of courses, has been outlined. This would begin with a first-year course in criminal process, followed by courses in criminal law and by more specialized third-year courses or clinical programs.

- *Increasing manpower needs and the limited in-house training capabilities of most small agencies indicate the need for continued efforts to strengthen law school curicula for those planning to enter criminal justice practice.* The relatively rapid growth in supply of new lawyers, in relation to projected employment needs in the private sector, is likely to attract more students to the criminal law field, if adequate course offerings are provided.

H. CONTINUING LEGAL EDUCATION

- *Continuing legal education programs are designed to assure the continuing competence of lawyers, in both criminal justice and civil practice, as well as to provide certain skills and knowledge not adequately covered in law schools.* Based on available, limited data it is estimated that between 10 and 25 percent of lawyers attend CLE programs, which are offered through various national programs or by region or state and local providers, such as bar associations or law schools.

- *About 10 percent of the courses provided in continuing legal education are in the area of criminal law.* Primary emphasis is on needs of private defenders. Inadequate emphasis is provided to juvenile justice and tactical skills.

- *In-service continuing legal education programs are provided to a limited proportion of attorneys in prosecutors' and public defenders' offices.* Agency-level training is provided to only about 15 percent of all prosecutors and 20 percent of public defenders. In addition, state level training is available to prosecutors and defenders through state training coordinators' offices or professional associations.

- *CLE is mandatory at present in only two states, with limited progress in other states.* Iowa and Minnesota require attorneys to attend CLE courses; Wisconsin will do so in January 1977. The mandatory requirement in these states is 15 hours per year. Generally, adoption in other states will be influenced by an evaluation of experience of the states where it is now in effect.

- *A continued expansion of CLE appears desirable, in combination with expanded agency-level programs, to meet existing and prospective needs for such training of criminal justice personnel.* A major issue in CLE is the funding of such programs. More than one-fourth of all criminal law CLE courses in 1975 received LEAA funding. Subsidized courses enjoy large attendance; those whose fees were high (up to $250) attracted fewer students. Inadequate funding has resulted in lower quality programs, and reliance on services of volunteer lecturers. Law schools also have given low priority to CLE to date.

I. PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR CORRECTIONS

- *Several disciplines, including social work, sociology, and psychology, have been traditionally considered as the sources of professional treatment and case work personnel for correctional activities.* Correctional specialization has, however, been given a low priority in all of these disciplines, reflecting many of the undesirable aspects of employment in correctional agencies (see Volume III, Chapter IV).

- *Although one-third of approved graduate programs in social work offer a concentration in corrections or criminal justice only about 5 percent of all social work placements are with such agencies.* This low rate, which has remained relatively constant since 1971, probably results from a number of factors, including preferences of social work graduates for direct individual client services case work and group work, and dislike for the correctional environment.

- *A relatively small proportion of correctional case workers have had professional social work education.* Only 7.5 percent of probation and parole executives held MSW degrees in 1975; only 4.1 percent indicated that such degrees should be required for advancement to supervisory positions in their agencies.

- *Graduate degree programs in sociology and psychology also have very limited provision for correctional specialization.* Only 140 M.A. degrees and 19 Ph.D. degrees were awarded in criminology in 1973-74--a moderate increase over the number awarded in 1971-72. Data are not available on the number of sociology or psychology graduates with advanced degrees who have entered correctional work. However, the low proportions of such personnel employed in correctional agencies indicate that few advanced degree graduates have entered this field.

- *Alternative forms of professional education for correctional case work and counseling roles need careful exploration.* Consideration should be given to development of an interdisciplinary curriclum designed for probation and parole, and for related counseling and case work functions in correctional agencies.

- *Trained volunteers can provide an important supplement to the limited resources of professional specialists in many correctional and probation/parole agencies.* Volunteers have assisted in counseling of offenders, in work-release activities, in tutoring of illiterates and educational marginals, in family services, and related activities. They have been particularly active in the field of juvenile probations. Improved training of volunteers, clearer role definitions, and improved volunteer recruitment and screening procedures are needed for their effective utilization.

CHAPTER II. AN OVERVIEW OF FEDERAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS FOR CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRAINING AND EDUCATION

A primary objective of the National Manpower Survey is development of a comprehensive picture of the nature and extent of the training and education currently being provided to the state and local employees of the criminal justice system. Detailed analyses of the incidence and substantive aspects of the training and education programs of the criminal justice system appear in Volumes II, II, IV and elsewhere in this volume. Unfortunately, too little information is available on the financial aspects of state and local activities to permit development of estimates of the overall costs of the training and education being provided. However, it is possible to estimate the Federal Government's outlays for this purpose. The results of the NMS effort to do so are presented in this chapter. The estimates should be useful in providing perspective on the particular federal efforts that are the subjects of detailed discussion elsewhere in this volume--specifically, the Law Enforcement Education Program and the programs of the Federal Bureau of Investigation.

The Office of Management and Budget estimates that the Federal Government spent nearly $150 million in fiscal year 1975 for the training and education of state and local employees of the criminal justice system. Data compiled by the National Manpower Survey suggest that the OMB estimate significantly understates the true level of the federal investment. The NMS estimates indicate that total direct and indirect federal spending for this purpose exceeded $225 million in fiscal 1975.

This chapter discusses the OMB and NMS estimates, and provides brief descriptions of the major federal programs involved. Section A considers the OMB estimates. Section B discusses the role of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration in this area. Section C presents an overview of the program and outlays of the Veterans Administration, which is the largest single source of support for the education and training of state-local criminal justice employees. The other federal agencies with significant activities in this field--with the exception of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, which is separately discussed in Chapter VI--are considered briefly in Section D. The final section of this chapter summarizes the results and compares them with the OMB estimates.

The general strategy of the analysis was to begin with the estimates published by the Office of Management and Budget in the 1977 budget document.[1] Consultation with those in OMB responsible for preparing the estimates produced additional, unpublished detail and a list of the names of the individuals in the federal agencies who were responsible for providing the data on which the OMB estimates are based. The agency officials were then interviewed, as were other agency personnel with additional information to provide on the fiscal and substantive program operations. On the basis of the information developed in these interviews, new estimates were developed and general descriptions of the agency programs were prepared. Although the budget estimates were, in nearly every case, discussed with agency officials, as were the methods used to arrive at the estimates, the results should not be understood to have the formal approval of the agencies involved.

A. THE OMB ESTIMATES

In January 1976, the Office of Management and Budget estimated that total federal outlays for programs directed at the reduction of crime amounted to $2.8 billion in fiscal year 1975. A detailed breakdown of this estimate, classified by type of activity and the level of government ultimately benefiting from the funds, appears in Table II-1. The specific outlays of interest to this analysis are shown in the line titled "Education and training of enforcement officers" under the major program heading "Law enforcement support." Of the $165 million estimated for total outlays for training and education, OMB attributes $149 million, 90 percent of the total, to the support of training and education for state and local government employees in the criminal justice system.

Table II-2 shows a breakdown of the estimated $149 million by federal agency. The OMB data show outlays by the Veterans Administration for the training and education of state and local criminal justice personnel roughly equal to those of the Department of Justice. About two-thirds of the Justice Department total is accounted for by LEAA, with the FBI spending most of the balance. The Drug Enforcement Administration spent $715,000 and two other agencies had relatively modest programs in terms of costs.

B. LAW ENFORCEMENT ASSISTANCE ADMINISTRATION

The primary vehicle for the channeling of federal funds directly into the training and education of state-local criminal justice employees is the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. LEAA funds are allocated to this purpose in two general ways. The first involves direct expenditures, by

TABLE II-1

FEDERAL OUTLAYS FOR THE REDUCTION OF CRIME, BY MAJOR PROGRAMS, BY ACTIVITY, AND BY LEVEL OF GOVERNMENT, FISCAL YEAR 1975

(thousand dollars)

Major Program and Activity	Total Outlays	Outlays in Support of	
		Federal Programs	State and Local Programs
Total	$2,821,400	$1,679,103	$1,142,297
Crime research and statistics, total	106,890	39,586	67,304
Statistics on crime and justice system	32,373	16,058	16,315
Research on behavior and sociology of crime	11,938	4,979	6,959
Supporting research and development	62,579	18,549	44,030
Reform of criminal laws, total	3,891	1,518	2,373
Reform of federal criminal laws	1,518	1,518	--
Support of state and local criminal law	2,373	--	2,373
Service for prevention of crime, total	419,574	218,359	201,215
Public education	14,311	694	13,617
Special programs for narcotic addicts	258,776	215,144	43,632
Prevention and control of juvenile delinquency	110,577	1,412	109,165
Development of community services	35,910	1,109	34,801
Criminal law enforcement, total	1,116,287	871,951	244,336
Enforcement activities	821,109	821,109	--
Federal police	50,842	50,842	--
Assistance to state and local governments	244,336	--	244,336
Law Enforcement support, total	302,584	82,745	219,839
Criminal intelligence and information	57,413	18,608	38,805
Education and training of enforcement officers	165,054	15,888	149,166
Laboratories and criminalistics	48,311	16,443	31,868
International programs	31,806	31,806	--
Administration of criminal justice, total	259,451	199,739	59,712
Preparation of federal criminal cases	82,471	82,471	--
Operation of federal court system	98,973	98,973	--
Assistance to state and local governments	59,712	--	59,712
Federal assistance programs for the poor	18,295	18,295	--
Rehabilitation of offenders, total	528,593	264,522	264,071
Federal correctional institutions	182,797	182,797	--
Federal community treatment programs	47,940	47,940	--
Education programs for federal inmates	5,736	5,736	--
Vocational training for federal inmates	5,080	5,080	--
Assistance to state and local correctional programs	264,071	--	264,071
Training of federal correctional personnel	1,152	1,152	--
Medical treatment programs	21,600	21,600	--
Pardon of criminals	217	217	--
Planning and coordination of programs	84,130	683	83,447

Source: Unpublished OMB tabulations.

TABLE II-2

FEDERAL OUTLAYS FOR THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF STATE-LOCAL EMPLOYEES OF THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM, FISCAL YEAR 1975

(In Thousands of Dollars)

Agency	Total Outlays
Total	$149,166
Veterans Administration	73,513
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Department of Justice	49,638
Federal Bureau of Investigation, Department of Justice	25,210
Drug Enforcement Administration, Department of Justice	715
Fish and Wildlife Service, Department of the Interior	85
Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare	5

Source: Unpublished OMB tabulations.

Congressional mandate or a discretionary decision by LEAA, for training or education. The second occurs when the states and local governments allocate portions of their block grants to training and education programs.

This section provides a summary description of the LEAA programs that involve direct allocations of funds to training and education, and outlines briefly the method used to estimate the shares of state block grants that are used to fund the training or education of state-local personnel.

1. Continuing Education and Training Programs

LEAA allocates resources to state-local training and education through five specific programs mandated by the Congress: the Law Enforcement Education Program, the Educational Development Program, the Internship Program, the Section 402 Training Program, and the Section 407 Training Program.

The Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP) provides grants to institutions of higher education to be allocated as grants or loans to pay for the tuition, fees, and books of their students who are employed by the criminal justice system or who anticipate being employed by the system upon completion of their education. As LEEP is discussed in detail in Chapter IV of this volume, no further attention is devoted to it here.

The Educational Development Program is designed to provide support for the development and strengthening of the criminal justice graduate programs and research activities of colleges and universities. Since 1973 all of the funds budgeted for this program have been allocated to the seven universities participating in the National Criminal Justice Educational Consortium. The institutions are: Arizona State University, Eastern Kentucky University, Michigan State Universtiy, Northeastern University, Portland State University, the University of Maryland and the

University of Nebraska at Omaha. The uses of the funds provided by this program include curriculum development and evaluation, collaborative research efforts with the National Institute for Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, and the provision of fellowship support to graduate students for work on doctoral dissertations related to criminal justice problems.

The Internship Program funds college students who are working in criminal justice agencies during vacations or academic leaves of absence. The program is designed to stimulate the students' interest in careers in the criminal justice system through actual work experience in the field. The basic salaries of the students are paid by LEAA, and the agencies involved are encouraged to supplement the basic payment. During fiscal year 1974 approximately 770 interns participated in the program, each for a minimum period of eight weeks.

The Section 402 Training Program is the National Training Program of the National Institute of Law Enforcement (NILE), the research arm of LEAA. The purpose of this program is to transmit and stimulate the adoption of practices established by research to criminal justice practitioners. At the request of a state or local government, NILE is authorized to assist in the development and support of supplementary training programs for criminal justice personnel. Under this program NILE also supports Graduate Research Fellowships, which are administered by the Office of Education and Manpower Assistance.

The Section 407 Training Program provides grants to strengthen the training of state and local prosecutors involved in dealing with organized crime. Expenditures under Section 407 were first authorized at a level of a quarter million dollars per year in fiscal year 1973, a level sustained through fiscal 1976. Grants have been funded for the development or improvement of techniques, systems, manuals, and other devices designed to strengthen the prosecutor's capabilities in fighting organized crime. Training has been supported in investigative practices, prosecution techniques, and corruption control. Funds have also been allocated under this program for the development of organized crime prevention councils.

2. Discretionary Grants for Training and Education

Major proportions of the funds appropriated under Parts C and E of the Crime Control Act of 1973 are reserved to provide direct support for demonstration and experimental projects selected by LEAA. Although most discretionary grants are channeled through State Planning Agencies, some projects are funded directly by LEAA. It is impossible to generalize about the nature of the hundreds of projects that receive discretionary grants each year. The experience with such grants in particular sectors of the criminal justice system is discussed in context elsewhere in this report.[2]

3. Part C and Part E Block Grants

The cornerstone of LEAA's activity from the time of its founding has been the block grant--funds awarded directly to each state on the basis of population for use by the state, in accordance with its comprehensive plan, for whatever purposes it may determine to be desirable. Part C block grants may be used for virtually any purpose by any sector of the criminal justice system. Part E block grants are restricted to use in the corrections sector. Although not funded until fiscal year 1976, and hence beyond the immediate focus of this chapter, a third category of block grants was authorized by the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency

Prevention Act of 1974 to fund programs involving the prevention of juvenile crime. As in the case of discretionary grants, it is impossible to generalize about the allocations of the block grants.

4. Allocation of LEAA Funds to Training and Education

On the premise that all or nearly all of the outlays for the five training and education programs directly administered by LEAA are attributable to state-local personnel, the essential problem is determination of the shares of block and discretionary grants that are spent for training or education. Attribution of the entire outlays of the five direct programs to the state-local sector surely overstates the allocation to some extent. Some of the students benefiting from LEAA support of the Educational Consortium, for example, will not make their careers in the state-local sector. Unfortunately, the evidence that would be required to justify a less-than-100-percent allocation of the funding for the programs is not available. Thus this analysis of the LEAA budget assigns the full amount of the outlays for the five programs to state-local training and education.

The only source of information on the allocations of block and discretionary funding--short of an impossibly expensive and time-consuming evaluation of every project or program--is LEAA's Grants Management Information System (GMIS). The system is designed to provide ready access to information relating to such issues as the purposes of grants, the criminal justice sector to which they are assigned, and the types of goods and services purchased. In practice, the system suffers from two major disabilities.

First, the records on file are seriously incomplete. Information regarding the specific subgrants made by the states from their block grants is not always submitted to LEAA in Washington. The states are not required to supply the information, and even when they do there are often long delays between the awards and the reports to Washington. For example, Part E subgrants awarded in fiscal year 1972, and accounted for by GMIS, in June 1976, had a total value equivalent to 82 percent of the total Part E block-grant appropriation for that year. Subgrants awarded in fiscal 1975 and reported to GMIS by June 1976 amounted to only 48 percent of the 1975 Part E block-grant appropriation. The reported percentages of discretionary grants in the system are usually higher than is the case with block subgrants--84 and 78 percent, respectively, for Part E discretionary grants in 1972 and 1975--but GMIS can hardly be considered to have a complete or nearly complete accounting.

Second, the usefulness of the information retrievable from GMIS is compromised by weaknesses in the coding process. When a report on a subgrant or discretionary grant is received by LEAA, a contractor assigns computer codes to selected attributes of the project and the information is entered into the computer system. Among the aspects that are assigned codes are the type of criminal justice agency involved in the project whether a report will be filed as a result of the project, and the primary purpose of the grant or subgrant.

At least two problems arise in the coding process: multiple coding and failures to code. For example, in a set of 5,000 grants examined by NMS in March 1976, an average of slightly more than two agency codes were assigned to each. That is, 54 percent of the grants were coded law enforcement agencies, 57 percent courts, 99 percent corrections, and 3 percent non-criminal justice system agencies. On the other hand, only 3,954 project-purpose codes were assigned to the 5,000 grants. In the likely event that some of the projects were assigned multiple purpose-codes, this means that as many as a quarter or more of the grants were never assigned such codes. The focus of the present analysis is on training, which happens to be one of the "primary-purpose" codes. It is interesting to note that a training code was assigned to 22 percent of the 5,000 grants—to what extent in combination with other codes is not known.

Another problem in compiling information of the sort required for this analysis arises from the complex timing associated with the block grant-subgrant process. As is well known, a block grant awarded to a state in a given fiscal year may be obligated by subgrants at any time during that or the succeeding two fiscal years. This means that subgrants awarded by a state during a particular fiscal year may be funded from block-grant awards of any one of three fiscal years. In addition, a subgrant awarded during one fiscal year may not actually be spent until the next year.

In view of the problems of timing and incompleteness of reporting and coding, three key assumptions are necessary to complete the present analysis. First, as to timing, the analysis assumes that the total value of the subgrants awarded in fiscal year 1975 is an acceptable proxy for actual expenditures in that year. Second, it assumes that the discretionary grants and subgrants for which information is obtainable from GMIS constitute a random sample of all grants awarded. Third, the analysis assumes that the full amount of every grant or subgrant assigned a "primary-purpose" code of training is in fact fully allocable to training.

Given the continuing flow of the grant process and the absence of major shifts in policies from year to year, the first assumption is plausible. The information that would be required to assess the reasonableness of the second assumption is simply not available. The third assumption almost certainly results in an overstatement of the dollar magnitude of funds allocated to training. Consider, for example, a grant to purchase communications equipment and train personnel in its use. Such a project may well be assigned two "primary-purpose" codes: one for training and one for equipment purchase, even though only a portion of the funds actually finance training. The possible bias should be taken into account in interpreting the results of the analysis.

In summary, GMIS was asked to tabulate the value of all grants coded as training awarded in fiscal 1975, and the total amount of all grants, however coded, awarded in the same year. The tabulations were prepared separately for subgrants and discretionary grants and for Part C and Part E funds. The tabulated data provide a basis for calculating the ratio of training to total grants awarded in the year. The resulting percentages of grants of each type awarded for training purposes are then applied to LEAA's reported total expenditures in each category in fiscal 1975 to arrive at estimates of the dollar magnitude of training grants awarded.[3]

The results are reported in Table II-3, which shows actual LEAA expenditures in fiscal year 1975 in the first column and the NMS estimates of the amounts allocated to state-local training in the second. Approximately $80 million of LEAA's total program costs of $875 million are estimated to have been allocated to training. It is interesting to note that this amount is 60 percent larger than that ($50 million) reported in 1975 to OMB as having been spent by LEAA for the training and education of state-local employees of the criminal justice system.

C. OUTLAYS BY THE VETERANS ADMINISTRATION

Readjustment benefits for education and training have been available to qualified veterans since June 1944. The Veterans Administration has

TABLE II-3

ESTIMATED LEAA EXPENDITURES FOR THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF STATE AND LOCAL CRIMINAL JUSTICE PERSONNEL, FISCAL YEAR 1975

(In Thousands of Dollars)

Activity	Expenditures	
	Total	State-Local Training and Education
Planning Grants	$ 56,413	-
Part C Grants:		
Block	476,862	$ 18,312
Discretionary	82,196	10,505
Part E Grants:	(120,011)	
Block	60,006*	318
Discretionary	60,005*	4,680
Technical Assistance	8,700	-
Research, Evaluation, and Technology Transfer	39,646	-
Educational Assistance and Special Training Programs:	(45,818)	-
LEEP	41,185*	41,185
Educational Development	1,544*	1,544
Internships	515*	515
Section 402 Training	2,317*	2,317
Section 407 Training	257*	257
Data Systems and Statistical Assistance	23,888	-
Management and Operations	21,045	-
Total Program Costs	874,579	79,633
Change in Selected Resources	-13,258	NA
Total Obligations	861,493	NA
Adjustments	-8,630	NA
Total Outlays	852,863	NA

*Subprogram amount estimated on basis of allocation of appropriations.

NA: Not Available.

Source: The Budget of the United States Government, Fiscal Year 1977--Appendix (1976), p. 508; unpublished LEAA table titled "Appropriations History" (ca. March 1976); and NMS estimates based on unpublished tabulations prepared by LEAA's Grants Management Information System.

disbursed about $34 billion to 16 million veterans through fiscal 1975 under this program, popularly known as the GI Bill. This total is comprised of $14.5 billion for World War II veterans, $4.5 billion for veterans of the Korean conflict, and $14.9 billion for post-Korean veterans. Table II-4 shows the participation rate and the relative incidence of different types of education and training for each of the four classes of veterans. Perhaps the most striking aspects of the table are the significantly higher proportion of Vietnam era veterans taking advantage of the benefits and the high percentage using the benefits for college education.

TABLE II-4

NUMBER OF VETERANS AND VETERANS RECEIVING EDUCATION OR TRAINING BENEFITS UNDER THE GI BILL, BY SERVICE PERIOD AND BY TYPE OF TRAINING, JUNE 1974 THROUGH JUNE 1975

Service Period	Number of Veterans (millions)	Veterans Trained					
		Total Number (million)	Percent of All Veterans				
			Total	College	Other School[a]	On-Job Training	Farm Training
Total	31.6	16.0	50.5	20.7	20.6	6.6	2.6
WW II	15.4	7.8	50.5	14.4	22.5	9.1	4.5
Korean Conflict	5.5	2.4	43.4	22.0	15.6	4.0	1.7
Post-Korean Peacetime	3.1	1.3	41.4	21.1	17.9	2.0	0.5
Vietnam Era	7.6	4.5	59.3	32.2	21.6	5.3	0.3

[a] Includes correspondence schools.

Source: Department of Veterans Benefits, Veterans Administration, Information Bulletin (June 1975), p. 49.

During fiscal 1975, 2.4 million veterans received regular (non-disability) educational benefits worth a total of $4.1 billion.[4] The veterans were enrolled in three main types of programs: education in institutions of higher learning, education in schools below the college level, and on-the-job training. Table II-5 shows the number of veterans enrolled in each type of program and the corresponding total and average VA benefits received. About two-thirds of the veterans receiving benefits in fiscal 1975 were enrolled in institutions of higher learning.[5] Of these, 51 percent were attending junior colleges, 37 percent were in four-year programs, and 12 percent were graduate students.

It is impossible to determine directly from VA data the number of veterans attending college under the GI Bill who were employed by or preparing for positions in the criminal justice system. The VA has no record of the major field of study of two-thirds of those receiving benefits for college attendance during fiscal 1975. This is hardly surprising, as there is no requirement for the veteran to indicate more than his educational objective, such as "Bachelor of Science Degree." Those who did specify a major were either enrolled in a program where the field of study is part of the educational objective, such as "Associate of Science in Medical Technology," or simply furnished more information than was required. VA officials indicate that no special studies have been conducted, and that there is no exact way to determine occupational objectives except in instances where the educational institution offers only a singly occupation-related program, such as law or medicine. Of the 570,202 veterans receiving benefits for attending college during fiscal 1975 who did specify a major field of study, 26,053 (4.6 percent) indicated "police science, criminology, or fire protection technology." A crude estimate of the benefits paid in fiscal

TABLE II-5

NUMBER OF VETERANS RECEIVING EDUCATIONAL BENEFITS AND TOTAL AND AVERAGE BENEFITS PAID, BY TYPE, FISCAL YEAR 1975

Type of Training of Education	Veterans		Total Benefits Paid (thousand)	Average Annual Benefits Paid
	Number (1)	Percent of Total (2)		
Total	2,424,671	100.0	$4,058,050	$1,674
Institutions of Higher Learning	1,599,629	66.0	3,162,023	1,977
Programs Below College Level, Total	633,422	26.1	644,989	1,018
Correspondence Training	297,840	12.3	102,697	345
Flight Training	38,355	1.6	47,640	1,242
Other	297,227	12.3	494,652	1,664
On-the-job Training	191,620	7.9	245,202	1,280

Source: Unpublished data from Veterans Administration.

1975 to these veterans is \$51.5 million.[6] However, this estimate is certainly an understatement of the benefits attributable to present or future state-local employees in the criminal justice system. Many of the slightly over 1 million students who did not specify a major field are without doubt pursuing studies directly related to a crminal justice occupation. Moreover, other veterans--for example, those majoring in psychology, social work, sociology, and public administration--will undoubtedly follow careers in the criminal justice system.

An alternative estimate of the amount of VA benefits attributable to veterans pursuing criminal justice-related studies can be developed by attributing objectives to all of the students on the basis of the limited information available from those who have reported the objectives of their VA-financed education or training. This approach, separately applied to two-year and four-year college students, results in an estimate of about 69,500 veterans receiving benefits in criminal justice education programs, at an estimated cost of \$119 million in FY 1975.[7] This is probably a maximum estimate, however, since it is reasonable to assume that those veterans who were enrolled for specialized criminal justice or law enforcement degrees were more likely to identify these degrees in their statement of educational objectives than those who had more general educational objectives. A more conservative approximation of about \$100 million is therefore adopted for purposes of the present analysis. The latter total is consistent with an estimated enrollment of about 50,000-55,000 veterans in criminal justice-related programs, as compared with the estimate of 69,500 derived by the assumption that veterans who did not identify specific educational objectives on their applications included the same proportion of criminal justice majors as those who did.

Benefits paid to students attending colleges and universities constitute, of course, a passive program for subsidizing education for specific occupations. Veterans receiving these benefits are not required to pursue criminal justice or any other major, only that they make satisfactory progress towards an educational objective. The estimated amounts, then, are not expenditures by the Federal Government whose objective is producing additional education for criminal justice careers. Rather, the amounts are an ex post facto estimate of the expenditures going to eligible students who chose to major in criminal justice-related programs from the whole range of major fields available to students, but they are no less federal subsidies of criminal justice training and education for this fact.

Programs below the college level were utilized by 633,422 veterans for education and training in fiscal year 1975. About 298,000 of these were taking correspondence courses, 38,000 were in flight training, and 297,000 were attending other schools, mainly technical and vocational institutions. Included in the latter category are public schools as well as proprietary institutions approved by the VA or state certifying agencies. Veterans taking correspondence courses were eligible for reimbursement of established contract changes, and those attending educational institutions were eligible for the same benefits as college-level students.

Because of the requirement for approval of specific courses of study, the data for below-college-level training and education are more complete than those for college-level studies. In fiscal 1975, approved courses in protective services accounted for 1.6 percent of benefit recipients below the college level, while an additional 0.2 percent were studying to be legal technicians. Since "protective services" includes fire technology students and those preparing for jobs with private security firms, the percentage must be adjusted downward. As a conservative estimate, it seems reasonable to assume that two-thirds of the students in protective services courses are training for the state-local criminal justice system, and that all those in legal technician courses are. To account for a reasonable mix of correspondence school students and those attending classes, it is further assumed that legal technician trainees are correspondence students while those studying protective services are not. Applying these revised percentages to the number of veterans shown in Table II-4 yields roughly 1,500 correspondence students and 6,700 attending classes. Multiplication of these numbers by the average-benefits information from column 4 of Table II-4 yields a total estimate of $11.6 million for veterans studying in criminal justice-related areas below the college level in fiscal year 1975.

During fiscal 1975, 191,620 veterans participated in VA-approved on-the-job training programs. These veterans were eligible for full benefits during the first six months of training, with reductions at six-month intervals during the first 18 months of the program. In fiscal 1975, the average on-the-job benefit received was $1,280 per year.[8]

VA occupational data for on-the-job trainees is available in more detail than for other veterans. During fiscal year 1975, about 12,765 were training in occupationa directly related to the criminal justice system: 10,357 as policemen and detectives, 1,118 as sheriffs and bailiffs, and an assumed on-half the 2,580 guards and watchmen. Thus the fiscal year 1975 benefits for on-the-job trainees total $16.3 million.[9]

The estimates derived in this section are summarized in Table II-6, which shows that VA benefits attributable to the training or education or likely employees of the state-local criminal justice system in fiscal 1975 totaled $128 million, as compared with the OMB estimate of $74 million.

TABLE II-6

ESTIMATED VA BENEFITS PAID TO VETERANS FOR CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING, FISCAL YEAR 1975

(In Millions of Dollars)

Type of Education or Training	Amount
Total	$127.9
Colleges and Universities	100.0*
Other School	11.6
On-The-Job Training	16.3

* Rough approximation. See text.

D. OUTLAYS OF OTHER FEDERAL AGENCIES

Relatively minor amounts of federal outlays for the training and education of state and local criminal justice personnel are accounted for by three other agencies. The report filed with OMB by the Fish and Wildlife Service of the Department of Interior shows $85,000 for the training of state conservation officers; the Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare reports $5,000 for the training of local enforcement officers; and the Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA) estimates its spending in fiscal 1975 at $715,000 for the training and education of state and local enforcement officers.

Included in the DEA expenditures are those for their 10-week drug-training program for enforcement officers, one-week forensic chemist seminars, a program of one to two weeks for drug investigators, and special seminars. Table II-7 shows the costs and number of state and local personnel trained under these programs in fiscal year 1975. The figures in the table include

TABLE II-7

NUMBER OF TRAINEES AND ESTIMATED DIRECT EXPENSES
OF THE DRUG ENFORCEMENT ADMINISTRATION FOR THE
TRAINING AND EDUCATION OF STATE AND LOCAL ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS,
FISCAL YEAR 1975

(In Thousands of Dollars)

Program	Number of Trainees	Estimated Cost
Total	3,490	$715
Drug enforcement academy	101	304
Law enforcement officers school	3,040	332
Forensic chemist seminars	81	30
Drug investigators unit	190	9
Special seminars	780	33
Other	-	7

Source: Controller's office, Drug Enforcement Administration.

TABLE II-8

EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF STATE AND LOCAL CRIMINAL JUSTICE PERSONNEL AS ESTIMATED BY OMB AND NMS, BY AGENCY, FISCAL YEAR 1975

(In Thousands of Dollars)

Agency	Office of Management and Budget	National Manpower Survey
Total	$149,166	$224,350
Veterans Administration, total	73,513	127,900
College level education	NA	100,000*
Other schools	NA	11,600
On-the-job training	NA	16,300
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration	49,638	79,633
Federal Bureau of Investigation	25,210	16,012
National Academy	NA	7,960
Special schools	NA	2,711
Field training	NA	5,341
Drug Enforcement Administration	715	715
Fish and Wildlife Service	85	85
Office of Education	5	5

NA: Not Available.

*Rough approximation. See text.

only the direct costs of the program and are therefore understated by an unknown amount. DEA officials interviewed stated that they have no records that would enable them to estimate the indirect costs, even in the aggregate. Since the DEA total is of relatively minor importance, no attempt to impute these ammounts appears warranted.

E. SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Table II-8 shows the amounts reported by OMB in the Special Analysis of the budget and the estimates developed in this chapter. The results provide grounds for raising the OMB estimates by $75 million, from $149 million to about $224 million. The major difference between the estimates involves the case of the Veterans Administration. The data furnished by the VA for the Special Analysis of the budget are based exclusively on the students who can be directly associated with the criminal justice system from the limited information available on career objectives. The larger estimate by NMS makes an allowance for this understatment. The estimates for the FBI, discussed in detail in Chapter VI, are significantly lower than those furnished to OMB because of a major revision since last January in the way the FBI accounts for its training costs.

It should be noted that one possibly major source of federally funded spending for state-local training and education is not comprehended in the estimates presented in Table II-8. Since 1972 the Federal Government has distributed more than $25 billion to state and local governments in the form of general revenue sharing. Reports filed by recipients of these grants with the Department of Treasury indicate that between 10 and 20 percent of the total revenue sharing grants have been allocated to operating and maintenance for public safety. If these figures are accurate, the financial support provided each year by the sharing exceeds that provided by LEAA's block grants. Unfortunately, no studies have attempted to determine what proportion of this support may be allocated to training or education, and such an effort would have been far beyond the resources of the National Manpower Survey. However, the analysis earlier in this chapter of the disposition of the LEAA block grants in fiscal year 1975 suggest that approximately 3.5 percent of the funds were used for training and education. If a similar proportion of the general revenue sharing funds assigned to operating and maintenance purposes for public safety went into training and education, another $25-40 million would be added to the $224 million in outlays shown in Table II-8.

It is thus reasonable to conclude that the Federal Government contributed significantly in excess of $225 million in fiscal 1975 to the costs of training and education for the state and local employees of the criminal justice system.

CHAPTER II

NOTES AND REFERENCES

1. Budget of the United States Government, Fiscal Year 1977: Special Analyses (1976), Special Analysis N, p. 245.

2. See, for example, analysis of discretionary grants awarded for projects relating to the courts sector that appears in Volume IV.

3. The data on total grants actually awarded in each category are LEAA budgetary data published in The Budget of the United States Government, Fiscal Year 1977--Appendix (1976), p. 508. The total grant awards in the GMIS data base for fiscal 1975 account for 94 percent of the value of the total discretionary grants awarded in that year and 65 percent of the block grants.

4. Under present law, three groups of beneficiaries are eligible for education payments. Those who served in the armed forces are generally eligible for up to 36 months of full-time, approved schooling or on-the-job training. The other two groups are handicapped veterans and the surviving spouses or dependents of disabled, deceased, or missing servicemen.

   Students with no dependents attending an educational institution full time are eligible for benefits amounting to $270 per month. For those enrolled in correspondence courses and certain types of training, benefits for eligible programs are computed in money equivalents. In general, one month of the 36-month educational eligibility is considered to be used for each $270 of the VA pays in benefits.

5. Veterans attending colleges or universities full time were entitled to a monthly stipend of $270 during the school year if they had no dependants, $321 if they had one dependent, $355 if they had two dependents, and $22 per month for each additional dependent. (Reduced amounts were payable for part-time study.) In April 1975, 62 percent of the veterans attending college under the GI Bill were classified as full-time students and 65 percent had one or more dependents.

6. 26,053 students multipled by the average annual benefit paid college enrollees ($1,977). This understated estimate is the one provided by the VA to OMB for purposes of the Special Analysis of federal programs for the reduction of crime.

7. The VA reports that 868,000 veterans receiving benefits were enrolled in junior colleges in 1975. Of these, 408,000 reported a major field of study. If two-thirds of the 26,000 college students who indicated criminal justice majors were attending junior colleges, than 17,340 junior college enrollees reported criminal justice majors (4.25 percent of the 408,000 students). If the same percentage of those who did not report a major were enrolled in criminal justice-related programs, the total number of veterans in junior colleges who were majoring in criminal justice

in 1975 was 36,890. If the typical criminal justice student in junior college receives 75 percent of the average benefit of $1,977, then the GI benefits paid to junior-college students enrolled in criminal justice programs totaled $54.7 million in fiscal 1975.

VA data show that 627,380 veterans receiving benefits were attending four-year schools in 1975. Using the same reasoning outlined above for the case of junior colleges, the total number of undergraduate criminal justice majors in four-year colleges and universities in 1975 may be estimated to have been 32,621.

The 460,790 veterans attending four-year colleges and universities in 1975 did not report a major. If one-third of those who reported criminal justice majors were attending four-year colleges and universities, these 8,660 students amount to 5.2 percent of the 166,590 students who reported majors. The same proportion of those who did not report a major is 23,961 students. If these students, through the average mix of full and part-time attendees, each received $1,977 in benefits, the VA benefits attributable to four-year students majoring in criminal justice-related programs totaled $64.5 million in 1975.

It is difficult to judge the probable accuracy of this estimate or of that developed for students in two-year colleges. As noted earlier, they do not allow for students not majoring in subjects directly related to criminal justice but who will be employed in the state-local criminal justice system. On the other hand, some students who major in criminal justice subjects will not become employees of the state-local criminal justice system. Some of these may pursue careers related to their education but outside the state-local system, such as with the Federal Government or private security firms. On balance, however, it seems reasonable to suppose that those not specifically majoring in criminal justice programs but who will end up in criminal justice careers will predominate. In addition, the analysis does not attempt to determine the benefits paid to those among the more than 100,000 recipients of VA benefits enrolled in post-graduate studies who may be employed by or preparing for employment in state-local criminal justice agencies. Thus, it appears appropriate to label the estimates as conservative.

8. Full benefits were $196 per month for veterans with no dependents, $220 for those with one dependent, $240 for those with two, and $10 per month, for each additional dependent.

9. 12,765 times the average benefit of $1,280.

CHAPTER III. CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION

This chapter examines the criminal justice education system as it operates today. Section A traces briefly its historical development and the progress it has made in meeting some of the critical demands of the criminal justice system, particularly law enforcement and corrections. Section B assesses the various types of programs available to the criminal justice system from certificates to graduate courses. This assessment considers some of the issues, problems, and trends. Section C is an analysis of the actual program offerings mainly of LEEP institutions. The observations in this section are based principally upon review of the LEEP Applications File assembled by NMS. It attempts to look internally at what institutions report that they are doing in the way of curriculum offerings and student and faculty administration. Section C presents the results of a field analysis of 26 selected institutions, including an evaluation of program offerings and the problems related to student services and faculty administration. In a limited manner this section covers some of the same topics as Section B, but it is a commentary and analysis by program directors and field observers on some of the programs as they actually operate at these selected institutions.

The assessments made in Sections C and D logically precede Chapter IV, which is a general assessment of LEEP. Sections C and D describe and assess what institutions are doing internally in furtherance of their obligations to criminal justice education. Thus, some observations and findings made in this chapter form a background for the discussions in Chapter IV. Some of the recommendations in this chapter may also be reflected in Chapter IV.

A. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

As recently as the early Twentieth Century, formal law enforcement training was rare, and higher education in law enforcement was nonexistent. The initial impetus for the development of crime-related studies in the early 1900s came primarily from Chief August Vollmer of Berkeley, California.[1] During the late 1920's and the early 1930's, Vollmer's pioneering influence spread through California, as post secondary institutions of higher education began to incorporate criminology and police science curricula into their academic offerings. The trend began to spread to the East via Michigan State University's police administration activities in the early 1940's, and by 1958 over 50 institutions of higher education offered crime-related degrees.[2] (It should be noted, however, that "crime-related" includes sociology-associated criminology programs as well as those identified as police science.) The wide variety of departments administering these programs was symptomatic of the early confusion regarding the new field's appropriate academic base--an issue which is still being debated today.

The years between 1930 and 1945 represented a period of gradual expansion for law enforcement education. In 1931, the Wickersham Commission proposed the application of science to police work in the hope of better coping with the problem of crime.[3] Universities and colleges responded to this recommendation by establishing a considerable number of new police education programs and expanding existing ones. After 17 years of offering crime-related courses, the University of California, Berkeley, authorized a bachelor's degree program in criminology. Michigan State University's baccalaureate degree program in Police Administration, begun in 1935, was characterized by a 4-year course of academic study followed by 18 months of supervised field instruction. Such institutions as Northwestern, Texas A&M, Harvard, Ohio State, and the

Universities of Alabama, Michigan, Minnesota, Toledo, Wisconsin, Louisville, Hawaii, Florida, Wisconsin, and Texas all offered some coursework for police. Most programs established during this period were designed entirely for police personnel.[4]

After World War II, veterans entering the law enforcement field, aided by financial assistance from the GI bill, prompted institutions of higher education to expand police-oriented programs to meet veterans' needs. The most significant expansion during this period occurred at the community college level, which focused on the in-service education of personnel.[5]

In 1949, Boolsen identified 26 institutions as offering postsecondary degree programs in criminal justice (criminology); of these, 11 had programs concentrating on law enforcement, 5 on corrections, 4 on other criminal justice areas, and 6 on more general, related topics.[6] By 1959, A. C. Germann reported the existence of 77 crime-related programs among 56 different institutions in 19 states. These included 26 associate, 21 baccalaureate, 21 master's, and 9 doctoral programs,[7] although it should be noted again that "crime-related" is a broad generic phrase incorporating a number of types of programs.

During the 1960's, these programs experienced a tremendous growth acceleration, perhaps unparalleled in the history of higher education in this country. As a result of this program expansion, in 1965 the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) began publishing an annual directory of police science programs. That first directory reported the existence of 125 programs,[8] (counting each associate, bachelor's, master's, and doctorate degree as one "program"); the 1975 directory reported 1,245--an 890 percent increase in a single decade.[9]

Also during the 1960's, prominent groups such as the IACP and the International Association of Police Professors (now the Academy of Criminal Justice

Sciences) began to issue public statements in support of higher education for law enforcement personnel.[10] Further impetus was provided by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, which recommended in 1967 that all future police officers should be required to have completed at least two years of college education and that all such personnel should ultimately be required to possess a baccalaureate degree.[11] More recently (1973), another national body--the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals--specifically recommended requiring a baccalaureate degree for all police officers by 1982.[12]

In 1976, The Police Chief Executive Report, recommended that each state or local jurisdiction require that new chiefs of agencies with fewer than 75 individuals have completed at least 60 semester units at an accredited college or university, to be followed by an achievement of 90 semester units by 1978 and 4 years of higher education by 1982. For chiefs of agencies with more than 75 employees, the entry standard would be 120 semester units or a baccalaureate degree.[13]

One of the single most important factors in the proliferation of criminal justice higher education programs has been the increased federal funding first made available by the Law Enforcement Assistance Act in 1965 (Public Law 89-197) and then by the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 (Public Law 90-351). The Law Enforcement Assistance Act created the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance (OLEA) that started a program of small grants to help develop and implement police science degree programs.

The Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act then created the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA), which was authorized to underwrite programs of academic financial assistance (Sec. 406). This effort, entitled the Law Enforcement Education Program (see Chapter IV), was designed to upgrade existing personnel and to prepare others for entrance into the criminal justice system. The initial legislation authorized grants of up to $300 per semester for in-service personnel and loans up to $1,800 per year for pre-service students. In 1973, the amounts were increased to $400 and $2,000 respectively. Two other LEAA programs of academic assistance deserve mention. The Graduate Research Fellowship Program provides grants to institutions to support dissertation research in criminal justice, and the Internship Program is designed to give college students the opportunity to work in criminal justice agencies.

Although the substantial growth of criminal justice education programs has enabled many pre-service and in-service personnel to attend college, the rapid expansion has brought substantial problems. The research that has been done suggests that the field still does not have a clearly defined body of knowledge or set of goals and perspectives, and that program quality sometimes has suffered because of the lack of definition.

At the two-year level, attempts have been made to properly aim lower division programs through the development of national curriculum guidelines. The American Association of Community and Junior Colleges in 1968 published and disseminated its Guidelines for Law Enforcement Education Programs in Community and Junior Colleges.[14] These were followed in 1975 by an updated version of two-year program guidelines published by the U.S. Office of Education.[15]

In an analysis of the curriculum development projects funded by the Office of Law Enforcement Administration between 1966 and 1968, Charles Tenney found three general curricula types, which he labeled "training," "professional," and "social science." "Training" curricula were defined as those aimed at direct rule application, mechanical skills, equipment operation, and skill development where no discretion was involved. "Professional" curricula were defined as directed toward the internalization of standards of goals-oriented behavior and the development of expertise in particular subject areas. "Social science" curricula were defined as being composed of significant numbers of theoretical, background courses. Tenney found that 10 of the 13 two-year programs and 4 of the 15 four-year programs were of the training variety. There were 3 two-year programs and 11 of the four-year programs were classified as either professional, social science, or a mixture of both. While it is evident that different levels of degree programs would have different educational objectives, there seems to be a confusion of objectives even within levels. Tenney concludes that:

> Unless and until we are able to achieve some common ground of agreement concerning this performance and these goals, it is likely that higher education which purports to provide personnel in the field will continue to wallow.[16]

In 1972-73, J. Price Foster also discovered evidence of confusion in the field in an examination of the placement programs and the diversity of program titles. Many criminal justice programs were found to be located in departments with similar titles, but nearly as many were housed in sociology departments. In addition, criminal justice programs were also found in departments of business administration, political science, public service, and education (see Table III-1). Foster also found that more than 100 degree titles were used to describe crime-related studies and saw this lack of uniformity as symptomatic of the problems of higher education in defining the field.[17]

It may be concluded that criminal justice education is still in a state of flux. There are certain trends evident. There is some movement toward assuring articulation and cooperation among training academies, community colleges, and universities via a system of accreditation. The Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences' Accreditation and Standards Committee has accepted

TABLE III-1

INSTITUTIONS WITH CRIME-RELATED DEGREE PROGRAMS, AMONG LEEP PARTICIPANTS, 1972-73

	Total N=683	University N=158	Other N=125	2-Year N=400
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
All CJ Related	26.8	27.4	24.1	27.3
Law Enforcement/Police Science/ Police Administration	13.4	9.5	10.1	17.6
Criminal Justice	8.6	13.3	9.0	4.9
Administration of Justice/ Social Science	3.2	2.3	2.8	3.6
Criminology	1.6	2.3	2.2	.8
All Social Science	27.4	26.0	41.0	23.3
Sociology/Anthropology	9.9	16.0	20.2	1.3
Social and Behavioral Science	14.6	3.2	19.1	21.4
Psychology	.6	.3	1.7	.4
Social Work/Social Welfare	2.3	6.3	0	.2
All Political Science	8.6	12.7	3.9	7.4
Political Science/ Public Administration	4.5	11.0	2.2	.6
Public Service/Public Affairs/ Public Safety/Urban Affairs/ Human Services	4.1	1.7	1.7	6.8
Arts and Sciences/Liberal Arts	.8	1.2	1.2	.4
Business/Business Administration	1.7	.9	1.7	2.3
Vocational/Continuing Education	8.6	2.6	2.8	15.3
Education	.6	.9	.6	.4
Chemistry	.5	1.4	0	0
Other	13.2	15.0	10.7	12.3
No Response	11.8	11.0	14.0	11.7

Source: Foster, "A Descriptive Analysis of Crime-Related Programs in Higher Education," Table 23.

responsibility for developing accreditation guidelines for criminal justice programs in postsecondary institutions (See Appendix E).

The fact that ACJS recognized the interdisciplinary character of the criminal justice field has been interpreted as a trend away from earlier law enforcement-centered programs and toward criminal justice programs that are more comprehensive in their approach.[18] This "systems" orientation analyzes the interrelationships and functions of the components of the criminal justice system and has resulted in the creation of "a more viable field in which programs are integrated, inter-disciplinary programs of research and teaching scholarship oriented toward a problem area, the problem of crime."[19]

In summary, the growth of criminal justice education in the past half-century has been overwhelming. Stimulated by the recommendations of national commissions and federal funding programs, criminal justice educational opportunities have been made available to numerous pre-service and in-service personnel. As an example of the degree status reached by law enforcement and corrections, Table III-2 compares a selected number of major fields of study, other than criminal justice, with the bachelor's degrees in law enforcement, corrections, and criminology. It may be noted that degrees in these criminal justice components are now more than half of the degrees earned in two major fields such as social work and secondary education, and are comparable with industrial and management engineering, and computer and information science degrees. Not shown in the table are the total number of degrees awarded in all areas of public affairs and public services (17,843), over 25 percent of which are in the criminal justice components listed in Table III-2.

Growth, however, has not been without its problems. There is still some confusion concerning the roles, objectives, and perspectives of criminal justice education. This, in turn, has created considerable diversity in program

TABLE III-2

BACHELOR'S DEGREES CONFERRED BY INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION BY SEX OF STUDENT AND BY FIELD OF STUDY, 1971-72

Major Field of Study	Bachelor's Degrees Requiring 4-5 Years		
	Total	Men	Women
Law Enforcement Corrections and Criminology	3,714	3,225	489
Social Work and Helping Services	6,090	1,539	4,551
Computer and Information Sciences	3,402	2,941	461
Secondary Education, General	6,125	2,692	3,433
Industrial and Management Engineering	3,680	3,642	38
Physicist, General	4,583	4,262	319
Geology	2,513	2,194	319
International Relations	1,227	851	376
Urban Studies	603	339	264
Interdisciplinary Studies/ Social Sciences	1,929	1,073	556

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Center for Education Statistics. Earned Degrees Conferred: 1971-1972. (Education Statistics 1975 Edition, see Toole 104 for complete listing of major fields of study.)

administration, titles, and content. Problems involving recruitment of qualified faculty and cooperation between the different levels of postsecondary institutions are not yet resolved. If it can be said that the 1960's was a period of growth for criminal justice education, then it remains for the 1970's to be a period of development and clarification of objectives and attention to the quality of services provided students at all levels of higher education.

B. CURRENT PROGRAMS IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION

The National Manpower Survey through its analysis of LEEP forms, field interviews at colleges and universities, surveys of current educational literature, and conferences with educational consultants, has identified some important program issues in criminal justice education. These issues provide a setting for the development of further program modifications or changes that will be recommended in this report. Special reference in this chapter is made to program objectives, curricula, and student and faculty administration.

1. Introduction

Within functional roles of lower division, upper division, and graduate criminal justice studies at colleges and universities it is possible to state the objectives of law enforcement and criminal justice curricula. The following list is not meant to be definitive but rather to suggest, on the basis of the NMS survey of criminal justice education programs, what respondents believed to be some of the most important purposes of their offerings.

- To analyze the process of crime and delinquency prevention and intervention as well as the philosophical and historical evolution of social control mechanisms which are designed to deal with crime, delinquency, social crisis, and citizen safety.

- To develop a thorough understanding of the justice enterprise as a single--yet highly complex--system, and the ability to analyze the strengths and weaknesses of its component operations.

- To provide occupational preparation for pre-service careerists in conjunction with postsecondary higher education.

- To provide educational upgrading to adults already embarked upon their criminal justice careers.

- To encourage and pursue research, through training in research and evaluation techniques, to test and assess effectiveness and progress in criminal justice and thus provide a vehicle for transmitting new knowledge between the university and the practitioner.

- To offer specialized criminal justice information to students who are majoring in programs related to the delivery of human services (e.g., social welfare, urban studies).

- To instruct students in the necessary technical skills and concepts so that later specialized training and job experience is more meaningful, performance is enhanced, and students can perform as agents of change.

- To provide regularly scheduled, long-term educational opportunities for all careerists through programs of continuing education.

To accomplish these objectives, criminal justice programs have been developed at various academic levels, geared to specific goals but frequently overlapping in the courses or programs offered. The following programs are discussed in terms of their purposes and the issues involved in their administration.

2. Certification

The 30-credit educational certificates available in the field of criminal justice are generally career-oriented. The NMS field interviews indicated, however, that this vehicle for educational achievement, although popular at its inception, has declined in use over recent years as associate degrees in this field evolved. When it is utilized, it serves as the concluding award for the completion of a 1-year course of study. In other instances, the certificate may comprise the first half of the heavily career-oriented portion of the two-year associate program.

The typical law enforcement 30-credit certificate includes at least 21, and often 24, credits of the basic associate specialized courses (e.g., criminal law, criminal investigation, court/legal procedures, evidence, and patrol administration). These can be supplemented by two or three directly-related lower division courses that meet the curriculum requirements or could be counted as electives (e.g., business/technical report-writing, sociology/criminology, supervision, psychology, or even social problems). The concept is that the certificate student, having gained self-confidence and been assured of succeeding in college-level study, would progress toward the final half of the associate degree. Law enforcement certificates have tended therefore to be made up of transferrable coursework. This is not common throughout most such technical/career fields.

Thirty-credit certifications have proven useful in a field searching for credentials, and they can be met while persons are employed full-time. Further, certificates are quite popular with community college administrators, since they do not necessitate serious commitment of resources until the user group has proven its interest. A part-time, or very small full-time, staff can provide a certificate and allow the institution ample time to analyze and project demand. Perhaps the use of the law enforcement certificate will increase for agency employees in rural and less populated areas that are not directly serviced by the community college. Also, many agencies may benefit from using the certificate to introduce their personnel into formalized study and upgrading.

In the related field of corrections, the case for the certificate is still persuasive. It is a way for an isolated correctional institution to begin a regular program for correctional officers who possess no college experience. One purpose of a job-related, technical certificate would be to encourage and support custodial officers on their way toward the new role of correctional counselor. Such courses are offered by many community colleges now; often they are outgrowths of earlier law enforcement courses, and they are most likely to be found in close proximity to major correctional institutions. In the same manner, certificate programs could provide executives of small agencies or institutions with a means for gaining formal academic training in administration and management. Chapter V of this volume demonstrates the need for administrators of small agencies to absorb specialized training tailored to the management tasks of their particular jobs.

Whatever the final decision may be about long-range credentials for practitioners in the criminal justice system, the certificate will continue to appeal to many as the most non-threatening device for entry into higher education, with a tangible reward for completing one's "freshman year."

Since certificates often develop into associate degrees, they are vital to curriculum development, especially among heretofore untested clientele. Where associate degrees have become transferrable in such a way (notably in law enforcement), the certificate might well be expected to decline in popularity (but only after the group or groups needing it most have decided that it is no longer the wedge into higher education). In other words, if a county or metropolitan area were to establish an associate (60-credit) entry-level standard, the certificate would be reduced significantly in value. To expect it to be eliminated is not entirely realistic, since there may be employees, general education diploma-holders and the like, who will continue to require upgrading through this mechanism.

3. Associate Degree Programs

The role of the community colleges in criminal justice education emerged in the mid-1960's. It was stimulated by the President's Crime Commission Report, the work of the International Association of Chiefs of Police and the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, and the availability of LEAA and LEEP funding.

From the NMS discussions with educators, it appears that the associate programs that started with full-time coordinators were most likely to be successful, measured by continuing enrollment, quality curriculum, job placement, program/course expansion, and transfer relationship to universities. In addition, they were less likely to duplicate police academy programs, have internal academic hostilities, or use their part-time faculty inadequately or inappropriately.

Relations with the total criminal justice system rarely existed in the early stages of an associate degree program, since the practitioner-turned-coordinator was far closer to the law enforcement segment of the system; and his own prior work experience was generally reflected in the direction of the curriculum. This relationship often was too close, so that some two-year programs became wholly owned subsidiaries of a police agency. But it must also be recognized that without clear evidence of in-service student credentialing system was at work, as there was in the case of such allied health fields as nursing; nor were there specific occupational entrance requirements, such as were found in the industrial/technical world (e.g., engineering technician or computer programming).

a. Issues. Since community colleges are strongly oriented to local career needs, and since law enforcement personnel are found at all levels of government, it is not too difficult to ascertain why so many two-year schools identified this occupational grouping as one that deserved special attention. Also, the community college responsive to local needs would be likely to hear the knock on its door when it was initiated by a state police official, local sheriff, city police chief, judge, prosecuting attorney, or possibly several representatives of federal enforcement agencies assigned to the area.[20] (See the discussion on academically affiliated training academies in Chapter VI of this volume).

As local pressure mounted and associate level enrollments in criminal justice courses approached those in the most popular programs, such as secretarial science and data processing, there were growing pains that continued into the 1970's. Some of them are described here to help determine to what extent present efforts are meeting the manpower needs of criminal justice agencies.

The absence of a well-prepared faculty was the single greatest impediment to rapid curriculum development and program quality control. The practitioner-turned-educators had to plan, coordinate, teach, and advise; often alone and unaided by college administrators. Often the coordinator and the faculty had to make choices among objectives, for example, whether to prepare young people for a vocational career in heavily technical subjects, or to equip students (including those already employed) with a broadly based academic approach to the specialized body of knowledge that could serve as a foundation for further education.

Dean Vincent O'Leary has delineated the problem faced by both the two-year and the four-year colleges in this way:

> A program that defines the relevant body of knowledge in fairly narrow and technical terms may increase a student's immediate vocational capabilities, but it may also limit his ability to deal with basic assumptions and may narrow the array of responses he can bring to new problems and changing definitions.[21]

Other problems faced the faculties. New teaching techniques and emphases had to be developed, as most law enforcement instructors faced two groups of students--inexperienced youths and seasoned veterans--in the same class. Literature sources and textbooks were being developed nationally during the period from 1968, but only in the past two or three years have all course directors enjoyed the luxury of being able to make choices among an increasing number of basic textbooks, some of which, as NMS noted in its text book review, are incorporating research findings and related studies into their presentations, reflecting a growth in the scholarship of their preparation. Class scheduling, often quite flexible in the community college, needed special attention to adapt to personnel rotation, changing work shifts, and frequent requests for on-site agency courses.

Standards for quality assessment in criminal justice have not been totally agreed upon. Some argue that the best of the two-year programs are those that transfer most satisfactorily to the university. Others, equally quality-conscious, argue that technical career education does not necessarily always transfer (e.g., nursing, engineering technology, X-ray technician). Some considerable overlap and confusion of roles has existed, for example, among state law enforcement training councils which determine minimum standards; community colleges; and other institutions, such as police departments or regional training academies.

Not all states have made two years of postsecondary education available in the same manner or with equal speed. If a state has developed its two-year educational system in the past three to five years, it probably has not made the same progress in offering law enforcement education as a state with a long-time, tested, and publicly accepted community college system. In the NMS review of two-year colleges it was shown that lack of careful geographical planning has meant that some large communities have active programs on several campuses and other locales still have no program or a modest part-time effort. This spotty development suggests that a serious long-range needs study and cost assessment might well have resulted, or could in the future result, in a more equitable distribution of programs and a more efficient use of the limited resources, especially faculty.

Few major alterations have been made in the typical associate curriculum as it was initially recommended and implemented. As a matter of fact, some states (e.g., California, Texas, Florida), have formally adopted core curriculum courses that are reasonably common throughout the state and must be included in all two-year degree programs in law enforcement. These may number as few as five or as many as seven courses covering the areas of knowledge suggested in national guideline publications, that is, introduction to law enforcement, criminal law, criminal investigation, organization/administration, community relations, evidence, and juvenile/youth and deviant/criminal behavior (see Appendix B). With such standardization, transfer of credits has been comparatively easy, but many programs have lacked experimentation and intellectual stimulation.

To be sure, the instructional emphasis has changed, increasing in depth and level of sophistication as instructors and resources have expanded. Likewise, and equally predictable, there has been an expansion into another segment of the criminal justice system with the addition of a few correctionally oriented courses. The most likely initial offerings in corrections, as reflected by the NMS catalog reviews, are introduction to corrections, treatment of the offender, community-based corrections, rehabilitative procedures/techniques (probation/parole), and jail operations/management. However, far more programs seem to have altered their names to include corrections than have actually altered their curricula (see Appendix C).

Specific courses in the two-year curriculum that were not typical initially, but have been added as the momentum grew, include traffic administration, organized crime, supervisory techniques, industrial/commercial security, and more courses reflecting the behavioral (analytical) approaches to criminal and delinquent behavior.

In the area of technical legal information, little change has occurred in most law enforcement education programs. Courses have continued to emphasize basic substantive criminal law, courtroom procedures, and evidence. If there was any notable alteration in the early 1970's, it was in providing more course content and focusing upon the courts themselves (e.g., court systems, variations and comparisons, court reform, and impact of rulings). After several basic corrections courses are introduced, one is generally added that deals with applications of the legal system to corrections, including sentencing, inmate rights, and recent court decisions affecting correctional policy. Some years ago, as paralegal education emerged, it was assumed that these new programs would have a formal relationship with law enforcement programs, but they have more frequently been included in the business education programs.

As staffing patterns change toward employment of fewer retired practitioners, a different approach to community college program administration will likely follow. Their successors will have less career investment in a single type of agency, such as law enforcement, with significantly differing perceptions of both the real educational needs of the total career field and their own role in higher education.

For example, the responses to the NMS field studies suggest that corrections, juvenile/youth services, private sector security, and an expanded definition of public safety might appear as course supplements and even options in academic programs and departments that limited themselves to law enforcement/police science not many years ago. Corrections courses, on the basis of task requirements identified in the NMS field job analysis, might well encompass not only correctional (custodial) officer upgrading, but also the client-oriented, semiprofessional aspect of correctional rehabilitation/treatment as well. The juvenile services may prepare 2-year probation/parole assistants and aides as a manpower resource to relieve professional officers from many administrative and other tasks. As the court administration programs impact upon the system, as identified in Volume IV, a more clearly defined role for paraprofessionals may emerge (see Volume V for related job information).

Based on the NMS field interviews and conferences with criminal justice educators it would appear that, as a significant number of these interrelated topics are offered, the title of "criminal justice" would more realistically describe the substance of the programs than it does today and should be substituted for the title "law enforcement."

b. Observations. A comprehensive overview of the community college and its relations with law enforcement during the past decade would summarize the situation as follows:

- a heavy curriculum reliance upon the field of law enforcement, with little input from, or even recognition of, criminal justice as a system;

- few faculty members actually prepared formally for college teaching, but a responsive reservoir of experienced operational personnel who possess sufficient academic strengths to initiate the efforts;
- particularly strong administrative support from the community college, although not necessarily equally strong college resource allocations in the early years;
- unpredictably large turnouts of in-service police officers, especially from city departments;
- a rapid growth of preservice enrollments;
- teaching/instructional improvement as faculties expanded and broadened;
- few curriculum changes from the initially recommended guidelines produced by national committees;
- continuing academic concern over duplication between the role of the community college in two-year degree education and its role as a vocational training center for law enforcement skills.

The two-fold objectives of the community college will probably remain, but there is little doubt that program expansion and healthy growth depend upon achieving a planned academic balance between meeting the actual career educational needs of those already employed and projecting and delivering to entry-level personnel the prescribed information (as indicated in Volumes II and III) they require to compete and perform at a verified two-year educational competence. This would suggest that the criminal justice system needs to take full advantage of the accessibility of the nation's community college network and establish a formalized career plan, with proper credentialing, in much the same manner as has the allied health industry. The resulting foundations of lower division studies would help shape the interdisciplinary nature of "accredited" academic studies and, equally crucial, would produce a baseline knowledge that could be demanded and expected of all entry-level personnel, helping to solve also the remaining problems of articulation.[22]

4. Bachelor's Degree Program

While the community colleges have responded to agency requirements for course support with alacrity, the 4-year schools have been more cautious because of more traditional academic policies. Progress, however, toward more diversified curriculum offerings has been substantial.

From an examination of the four-year programs undertaken by the NMS, it is apparent that the academic community has not challenged the recent expansion of bachelor's-level program titles to include criminal justice or administration of justice. Yet, some would argue that such programs have an obligation to devote identifiable blocks of coursework to each aspect of the system (i.e., police and corrections administration, criminal law, courts, correctional treatment, and perhaps basic issues in planning and research), before being legitimately labeled "criminal justice."

a. Issues. Indeed, in dealing with the curriculum identity dilemma, the NMS found, in its field visits and catalog reviews, that most universities are extending the criminal justice student's access to various traditional courses in other departments; hence, the common inclusion of required courses from sociology, political science, psychology, business, and public administration. This suggests that the subtle test of criminal justice program legitimacy is whether an institution has made a commitment to specialized higher education in criminal justice, with true interdisciplinary approaches, or whether it has merely grouped together a sufficient number of interrelated, already available study areas, and labeled this list of electives as "criminal justice."

A sign of curriculum maturation at the four-year level, then, might be the extent to which other departments' academic courses are included as supportive of the specialized criminal justice program, rather than how many existing courses have been recycled with a law enforcement- or corrections-oriented label (e.g., "psychology for law enforcement officers," "Constitutional law for police," or "sociology of corrections"). In no way is this meant to deny the validity of such long-standing courses as "crime and society," "sociology of law," or "deviant behavior and corrections," which the NMS found in many school catalogs. It is merely to point out that these courses can and do exist apart from any criminal justice program, and are not the area of expertise of most criminal justice faculties. Thus, they are supportive courses, and not the core of professional study that would appear to be needed to address the actual requirements of the criminal justice system. The NMS field study results suggest that there is no need to present a single curriculum or to suggest that all four-year schools should follow a prototype. However, the NMS field observations indicate that a criminal justice bachelor's degree curriculum should not be a composite of courses that have previously existed and have merely been renamed or reorganized to embrace a new field of academic concern.

The degree of specialization of coursework in a four-year program appears to be somewhat problematical. Since courses offered at the community colleges are usually expected to be general and broadly based, as a curriculum progresses to a four-year specialty (option), many of the additional courses would logically be expected to be more intensive. Yet, this is often not the case. For example, upper-division content addressing planning, program prioritization, organizational development, budgeting, and decision-making often is included in courses whose titles are unclear and even intentionally vague. Likewise, while the development of skills in research and evaluation techniques may be regarded as a much-needed aspect of university offerings, the initiation of criminal justice courses on these subjects is often hampered by the lack of literature, instructors, and interested students. Other areas that also appear to be in need of upper-division academic consideration include crime (offense) analysis, physical security, architectural planning (defensible space), or decriminalization. But the NMS field observations and consultant reports indicate that criminal justice bachelor's programs have only begun to identify and label their real academic territory. The resulting confusion, duplication of two-year offerings, and lack of clarity are part of the current stage of curriculum development in this field.

A very important difference between two- and four-year programs is the relationship to the career fields of practice. Curriculum matters, or other program content issues, have seldom been regarded as the province of the practitioners in criminal justice. While there are instances in universities where practitioner/instructors greatly influence what is taught, as in schools of business or medicine, they do so through classroom and clinic rather than by actual curriculum design. In four-year criminal justice studies, for the most part, any influence that may have existed has lessened. The reasons for this condition include academic administrators who had a broader vision of the meaning of university education, fewer pressures upon universities from local criminal justice officials, less direct involvement of in-service personnel in curriculum issues, the inclusion of students with other majors in undergraduate criminal justice courses, and the fact that universities do not often reward interrelationships with the world of work. While this situation varies with the mission of the institution, it is here being compared with the community college curriculum, where clearly a strong relationship exists with the field.

The foregoing discussion is not meant to imply, however, that universitites never attempt to accommodate the specific needs of in-service students. On the contrary, many 4-year criminal justice programs operate two separate (although not always equal) parts: the day program, taught by the full-time faculty and largely composed of high school graduates and community college transfers, and the evening program, composed of working adults, many of whom are practitioners. It is maintaining a foundation of quality throughout that presents serious administrative concern. The NMS has pointed out elsewhere the need for added quality appraisals. While the NMS interviews did not indicate any easy solutions, methods of dealing with this dilemma might include rotation of full-time faculty between day and evening courses, offering of late afternoon courses taught by full-time faculty to appeal to employed groups, and limiting the part-time faculty to teaching electives, highly specialized subject matter, or those courses for which no instructional expertise is available among the full-time staff.

Partly as a result of their in-service student clientele, special funding sources (e.g., LEEP), media attention, and political support, criminal justice programs often enjoy considerable visibility in their academic surroundings. As a result, such administrators of programs often find themselves in an advantageous position for stimulating internal commitments. Moreover, the NMS field studies indicated that the stronger the ability of the program director to communicate needs and goals upward within the academic institution, the more return is realized on the initial investment. With the added good fortune of a curriculum that is unique in comparison to the more traditional academic subjects, and with a location in a school encompassing applied social science endeavors, some criminal justice directors have solved a potentially serious problem--that of explaining the governmental process and complex realities of career programming to their own administrators.

b. Observations. After a review of curriculum development, course content, and the administrative issues involved in four-year criminal justice programs, the question of the role of such programs in servicing the needs of the career fields arises. Naturally, it is expected that a flow of motivated graduates with reasonable awareness of the criminal justice process and its performance will be produced. The acquisition of the skill and knowledge to perform some of the tasks identified by the NMS at all levels of the criminal justice career structure clearly requires university courses. (These tasks and their associated skill and knowledge requirements are identified in Volumes II, III, and especially VIII of this study).

Undoubtedly, new or refined approaches to prevention, rehabilitation, treatment, and various operational functions as they relate to human problems will demand university education for all levels of employees. Entirely new professional roles, as discussed in Volume VIII, such as planner, police agent, and diversion specialist will evolve from university programs. Whatever they may be called, those careerists assigned to environmental protection, consumer fraud or victim restitution offices, regional jail and detention centers, investigative staffs of public defenders, and regional crime laboratories and mobile units will, for the most part, have university backgrounds.

In addition, the need for a more complete understanding of the human factor in criminal justice activities is pinpointed in the following observation by Calvin Swank on the future of police work:

> Because of this phenomenon [the danger of technology dictating goals] and our changing social values it is predicted that as 1980 approaches, police organizations as well as society in general will place greater emphasis upon the "human dimension," show increased concern for individual growth and needs and de-emphasize our present strong attachment to technological advancement.[23]

In light of these anticipated developments, and looking even more broadly at the role of higher education, it can be expected that research and evaluative processes will be improved; that the abilities of management and supervisory personnel to lead and direct will be enhanced; that the importance of experience will diminish as a factor in selection of specialists and leaders; and that, ultimately, the public will be served by persons who have demonstrated a professional commitment through academic study in addition to their basic interest in working with people. This should bring careers in criminal justice closer into line with other established professions, particularly public school teaching, social work, nursing, journalism, planning, and others that only recently have formalized their university credentialling procedures.

5. Graduate Degree Programs

This chapter has identified so far the current issues in certificate, associate, and baccalaureate programs in criminal justice. It has outlined the intensive career relationship of the associate program and the movement to change the baccalaureate to a more professional degree, shaped by the normal standards of a university for its academic programs. In this section, graduate programs and their relationship to undergraduate CJ offerings are discussed.[24]

a. Issues. Given the NMS identification of the tasks of individuals in higher-level professional and managerial positions and the knowledge discussed in Volume VIII, it is apparent that the mission of graduate programs must expand to accommodate the increased demands of new jobs, or jobs that are to be redeveloped to accommodate changes in the system itself. Thus, among the objectives of graduate programs must be expansion of the availability of personnel aspiring to planning, policy-making, administration, and management positions in the criminal justice system. Additionally, the NMS found the demand running through task requirements of all sectors for further preparation in research and evaluation methods, not only to increase current knowledge, but to develop techniques for the acquisition and analysis of new data on which to base institutional, agency, policy, and program changes.

This function of the graduate programs may well be the most important objective in the period 1975-1985. The heated controversey over the effectiveness of law enforcement and correctional programs and the impact of the vast decision-making powers of prosecutors makes the development of a core of adequately trained research personnel skilled in evaluation techniques appear imperative.

Dean Norval Morris raised the research problem in the following statement:

> Possibly our lack of knowledge is to be attributed to intellectual sloth combined with the scarcity of people interested in criminological research and of sufficient funds for such work to be pursued. After all many people become interested in the crime problem for humanitarian reasons, and this applies as much to the trained social workers as to the lay volunteer. Others are interested only to the extent that they find employment in this field which, if not highly profitable is reasonably secure. It is not sensible to look to such people for critical, methodologically sophisticated assessments of their own work. But no such excuse can be offered for senior officials in police and prison departments who use substantial community funds and considerable resources of personnel without insisting upon research that evaluates what they are doing.
>
> Given the will to do this in the future the question remains, will there be a sufficient number of highly trained research cadre to both design and evaluate such efforts?[25]

Volumes II and III of this report identify the need for raising the quality of instructors in law enforcement and corrections. Among their other functions, the graduate programs prepare graduates qualified to teach and administer programs in institutions of higher learning and training centers. This approach in graduate-level training would also be aimed at producing individuals qualified to direct staff development in the differing types of services within the criminal justice system in order to meet individual needs. As the system becomes increasingly professionalized, the graduate programs must be engaged in preparing individuals to meet state licensing or professional credentialing requirements. The NMS field interviews and discussions found a quickening trend in the move toward more credentialing which graduate programs will need to address.

Not all graduate programs provide for all of the above needs, and the very specialized ones may be only partially concerned with several of them. Consider, for example, the master's program in criminalistics (laboratory scientific detection) or in regional planning (comprehensive public safety planning) as designed to meet specific occupational goals and professional credentialing as well.

Demonstrable difficulty with many graduate courses is that they have emerged without benefit of strong undergraduate foundations; hence, they duplicate, as the NMS found on examination of catalogs and through panel discussions with educators, similar offerings somewhere else at the bachelor's level. This is not unlike the process which is encountered between some two- and four-year curricula. Since there are no formally sanctioned guidelines for what is to be incorporated within bachelor-level study, it is easy to see how uncertainty arises at a higher level.

In addition, many applicants for graduate criminal justice studies do not have appropriate undergraduate preparation. The temptation is to start at the beginning, duplicating undergraduate coursework, and perhaps (depending upon the academic expertise of the staff) not even recognizing this overlap. Many more established disciplines would not be as free to admit to graduate work those who clearly had little or no prior academic preparation. A foreign language or mathematics department would be adamant; sociology or philosophy would demand that lack of undergraduate prerequisites be treated as deficiencies.

Another potential for duplication exists in the relationship to other courses and other academic departments. This has unquestionably led to many jurisdictional disputes between emerging criminal justice programs and social work or sociology and, to a lesser extent, public administration, rehabilitation services, or psychology. While some of these situations will become resolved and delineated, there can be no challenge to the arguments that sociology courses taught treatment of the offender and public administration taught organizational theory applied to government, as well as management concepts in public agencies, long before criminal justice came of age. A fundamental course in advanced theories of criminology may belong to the criminal justice department in one institution and to the sociology department in another.

b. Observations. There are cooperative as well as competitive situations, as the NMS found in examining some graduate programs. Some courses and areas of study that have been incorporated into criminal justice graduate studies include: research methods, interviewing and social group work, psychological tests and measurements, theories of anti-social deviant behavior, planning and budgeting, and rehabilitation counseling techniques.

Several approaches to the implementation of law enforcement/criminal justice graduate education are readily categorized by descriptive title:

- Public administration
  - -- one of the original approaches to the study of applied administrative concepts;
  - -- developed identity with police largely through the University of Southern California and several New York universities.
- Criminology (sociology), theoretical or applied
  - -- most likely to have research faculties and a history of education at the doctoral level;
  - -- likely to have evolved from the stature of a scholar who was within sociology but identified as a criminologist;
  - -- actually less interested in the criminal justice system than with crime as a social/cultural phenomenon;
  - -- least likely to adopt a criminal justice emphasis.

- Police administration (management)
    - -- easily identifiable as an extension of earlier undergraduate police administration programs that stressed organization and administration;
    - -- probably most likely to include planning and organizational development courses.
- Correctional administration/management
    - -- emphasis primarily on middle-level correctional administrators;
    - -- actually producing probation/parole agents and some institutional directors.
- Correctional Treatment
    - -- specifically designed to prepare graduates with rehabilitation skills;
    - -- includes heavy course load in clinical skills, social case work, and, often, therapy techniques;
    - -- may be using course labels reflecting case management and client-oriented skills;
    - -- may be identified with social work schools or rehabilitation counseling.

Of these categories, police and correctional administration most comfortably fit into a structure coming to be known as a criminal justice or administration of justice program, defined by Richard Myren as:

> An integrated, interdisciplinary program of teaching and research in the behavioral and social sciences focused on the problem of crime.

It may be observed how the concept of graduate education in criminal justice has had to evolve through many of the approaches listed and to be able to prove and maintain its own identity and status. Beyond that, and most importantly, it could not afford to duplicate well-established traditional disciplines nor could it appear to be embracing so much content that its graduates would be superficially aware of everything and masters of nothing.

What priorities are, then, emerging at the graduate level?

- Change and standards

Since most police and correctional systems are being changed to make their services more effective, consideration and effort are being given to creating a "strategy of change" so that sound programs do not fail because of poor implementation, lack of leadership, untrained technical staffs, or administrative shortcomings. In addition, operational standards for justice/safety services are being created and emphasized at the national and state levels, promoting a need for adaptation and self-evaluation based on the standards. As a result, long-range emerging needs include dealing with the costs, productivity, and effectiveness of the existing system.

- Rehabilitation

In initiating graduate studies, perhaps the most direct focus has been on developing course concentrations for correctional employees engaged in the rehabilitative process, who are not clinicians or intensive treatment specialists (e.g., probation and parole officers, offender supervisors, and juvenile after-care workers). Given the anticipated continuing emphasis on functions performed by such employees, it can be projected that this initial focus will be further expanded and developed.

- Administration/management

Another need is the provision of graduate courses for systemwide executive, management, and administrative personnel, discussed in detail in Chapter V of this volume. Moreover, federal projects and grants are producing numerous new activities that must be administered and directed. Field experience is a requisite for nearly all of these positions, but little related graduate study has been available to augment the experience of current employees.

- Planning and Research

An existing and likely to continue goal of many graduate programs is to prepare planning, evaluation, and applied research personnel. Although considerable demand exists for those with skills in evaluating programs and applying research techniques to justice operational fields, such individuals are not often being prepared, and rarely do graduate degree recipients from sociology or psychology enter into long-term careers in police, courts, or correctional agencies. In addition, an examination of the majority of State Plans for 1976, which attempt to respond to demanding manpower and other data requirements promulgated by LEAA, would most certainly require sophisticated data-based planning. Such new planning demands for both federal and state needs would appear to necessitate new graduate training for criminal justice planners.[27]

- Juvenile Justice

A deliberate attempt is underway nationally to encourage diversion of juveniles and youthful offenders from traditional methods of processing, as discussed in other volumes of this study. Toward that objective, it is anticipated that advanced academic emphasis will be devoted to studies of juvenile and youthful offenders. In many areas of the country, different types of experimental programs are already being tested, but an objective analysis of the new developments is essential in planning improvements. Graduate education can prepare personnel for such analysis, evaluation, and leadership.

The necessity for such preparation can be specifically related to the recent Senate findings regarding the need for new juvenile justice legislation:

> State and local communities which experience directly the devastating failures of the juvenile justice system do not presently have sufficient technical expertise or adequate resources to deal comprehensively with the problems of juvenile delinquency.[28]

- Faculty and Instructors

Also, as mentioned earlier, there is a serious need to provide college instructors, as well as agency personnel in job training. In order to cope with academic degree expansion and new staff requirements, a new system must be designed for faculty preparation.

The foregoing assessment may not be all-inclusive. But through an interdisciplinary curriculum incorporating the behavioral and social sciences and reinforced by selected electives, graduate criminal justice degree programs can develop an integrated approach--focusing on the issue of crime, especially in terms of intervention/prevention, legal and social justice, offender rehabilitation, juvenile diversion, productive public safety delivery systems, and more efficient management. In summary, at a time when academia is confronted with demands for accountability and when many traditional degrees have suffered cutbacks, criminal justice graduate education appears to enjoy a unique identity and a relatively strong administrative position.

C. LEEP PARTICIPANT EDUCATION PROGRAM OFFERINGS

The preceding section identified and described some of the practices, problems and issues,and possible future directions of the principal criminal justice program offerings. It dealt generally with five categories of programs: certificates, associate, bachelor's, master's and doctoral programs. This section examines the internal program offerings and student and faculty administration of institutions. The analysis is based upon data supplied through the LEEP application forms submitted to LEAA for use in making LEEP funding allocations. The purpose of the form itself places some limitations on the use of the data. However, NMS established a LEEP data file from the LEEP application forms and has used the data selectively for assessments made in this section as well as a general assessment of LEEP itself in Chapter IV. This section restricts itself in looking at institutions under LEEP funding from the point of view of what institutions say they are doing internally in program emphasis and faculty and student management.

1. Analysis of Participant Institutions

The NMS assessment of LEEP application forms for FY 1976 reveals that 28.5 percent of all institutions of higher education are recipients of LEEP funds (Table III-3). The clear evidence that LEEP-recipients are predominantly public institutions (79.8 percent) is no surprise. Perhaps more deserving of comment is the fact that such a relatively sizeable proportion of LEEP schools are private (20.2 percent). Typically, private institutions offer liberal arts and well-established majors for their students. While private school involvement is partially explained by the fact that major city in-service personnel are often in close promixity to a private institution that agrees to meet their needs, another explanation may well be the recent competition for students among private institutions. Also, the availability of LEEP funds with few institutional-eligibility restrictions has undoubtedly played a major role. In addition, the kinship among popular social sciences such as criminology, deviant behavior, and criminal justice may account for some movement of the private institution into this applied field, much as may have occurred in social welfare, recreation, and other public services.

Table III-4 indicates the growth of LEEP recipient schools offering at least one criminal justice program. It should be noted that these figures reflect colleges' self-definitions of a criminal justice program; specific criteria related to courses and faculty are probably not utilized in the determination. This is perhaps reflected to some extent in the slight decline in schools offering such programs between 1975 and 1976, after a three-year period of steady growth.

TABLE III-3

NUMBER OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS RECEIVING LEEP FUNDING, 1975-76

	Total		Receiving LEEP		Percent of Total Receiving LEEP
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
All Institutions	3,055	100.0%	871	100.0%	28.5
Public	1,454	47.6	695	79.8	47.8
Private	1,601	52.4	176	20.2	11.0

Source: NMS LEEP Institutional Data File (1976).

TABLE III-4

NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS OFFERING AT LEAST ONE CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROGRAM, 1972-76

Year	Number of Schools[a]
1972	429
1973	731
1974	792
1975	880
1976	878

[a] Among LEEP recipients.

Source: NMS LEEP Institutional Data File (1976).

If LEEP guidelines for program content and faculty tighten, and if the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences is successful in its effort to make program definition clear and precise, the likelihood of a further decrease seems apparent.

2. Types of Criminal Justice Programs Covered

LEEP file data reveal (Table III-5) that the largest number of criminal justice programs are operating at the associate level (804) and are law enforcement-oriented (425). A more detailed analysis of these data by degree level and program emphasis follows:

- Law Enforcement

The sizable number of programs labeled "law enforcement" is, in large part, accounted for by the fact that most of the associate degrees are in law enforcement. This title drops rapidly in popularity at the bachelor's and master's degree levels.

- Corrections

At first glance, the fact that corrections has almost half as many program titles as law enforcement would suggest that there is an increased effort to identify corrections as a major topical area. However, one is reminded that many of the earlier law enforcement programs are now titled criminal justice, so the corrections figure may not be entirely reflective of new growth.

- Judicial

The judicial area has received little attention at any level of study.

- Criminal justice

The significant number of programs with a "criminal justice" title (494) suggests that at least the concept of a system-wide approach is becoming popular. This is most pronounced among the universities and four-year colleges, as these institutions drop the law enforcement title. While this is not happening in

TABLE III-5

CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROGRAMS BY SUBJECT MATTER AND DEGREE LEVEL ACADEMIC YEAR 1975-76

Program Type	All Degree Levels	Associate Degree Programs	Bachelor's	Master's	Doctorate
All Programs	1,546	804	512	200	30
Law Enforcement	580	425	133	21	1
Corrections	247	130	75	39	3
Judicial	11	2	6	3	0
Criminal Justice	494	192	223	73	6
Juvenile Justice	7	2	2	3	0
Criminology	45	12	20	11	2
Other Criminal Justice Related	162	41	53	50	18

Source: NMS LEEP Institutional Data File (1976).

the two-year colleges to the same extent, it has not been ignored. In fact, it is very difficult to imagine how almost one-fourth of all associate degrees in this field can be labeled "system-wide." Moreover, if it is true that qualified full-time faculty are in short supply, and that many programs have little or no relationship with courts and corrections, the availability of true system-wide programs seems exaggerated if indeed the program title is intended to emphasize this system approach.

- Juvenile justice

Juvenile justice as a program title is virtually nonexistent. In the face of new juvenile legislation, a fiscal commitment to new efforts aimed at juveniles and youth, and strong national statements about discretion in juvenile services, it may seem odd that so few colleges have identified this distinct area of concentration, particularly since the juvenile field has long employed college graduates. It may be that this area of study is receiving attention in program course work or in the form of options, in programs with the more encompassing title of "criminal justice."

- Criminology

Probably as a result of its long-standing identification with sociology and its heavy research involvement in past decades, criminology is largely absent at the two-year level. In fact, the academic community might vigorously question whether it is feasible--or even possible--to award an associate degree in criminology, as 12 institutions report they do. Although the LEEP data indicate a university emphasis for this area of study, even there criminology is not particularly significant as a program title. This is not to suggest that the course by that label has disappeared, but rather, that criminology has not expanded into a program title, particularly during the recent development of new crime-related programs and new system-wide degrees.

- Other criminal justice related programs

While "criminal justice" is the predominant label at the master's degree level, the second most frequently listed program title at that level was "other," followed by "corrections" and "law enforcement." The "other" category nearly totals the combined law enforcement/corrections titles (50 listed as "other"; 60 as "law enforcement" and "corrections" combined). This suggests considerable difference of opinion on program name, even at the master's level.

One final note is the surprisingly large numbers of four-year colleges and universities offering associate degrees in this field. Of the 804 associate degree programs reported, 148 were listed as located in four-year institutions.

In summary, the data reflect vividly a confusion in terminology and call for a consensus on definitions of programs, emphases, and majors, so that certain terms begin to take on more universal meaning. Further, an institution should be obligated to demonstrate a system-wide capability before offering a "criminal justice" program.

3. Current Trends in Criminal Justice Programs

Over the past five years, it appears that changes in emphasis have been in two categories: law enforcement as a speciality and criminal justice as a comprehensive field of study (see Table III-6). Law enforcement showed a steady decline as a program title over the five-year period, while criminal justice increased rather steadily. The categories of corrections, judicial administration, and juvenile justice evidenced some fluctuations over the five years, but no strong trends; criminology programs apparently dropped off slightly.

Among changes in degree level, Table IV-6 also indicates that the only significant decrease was in certificate programs (declining from 16 percent of all programs in 1972 to 3 percent in 1976). As higher education in this field continues to move away from the more vocationally oriented, practical studies toward a more comprehensive, professional focus, this trend undoubtedly will continue. Among associate degrees, a small relative decline has been experienced since 1973 (from 54 percent to 50 percent). The number of bachelor's degree programs rose throughout the period. The number of bachelor's degree is increasing gradually (from 9 percent in 1972 to 13 percent in 1976) indicating a still upward trend. The doctoral programs appear to have remained fairly stable over the past five years, reflecting a general immobility in an area of criminal justice where the preparation of research and teaching personnel appears essential.

4. Types of Courses Offered

Table III-7 shows the typical course offerings at the two-year and four-year schools. As would be expected from the previous table's indications of program emphasis, law enforcement courses dominate the two-year schools, where they exceed over half the offering. Again, the more broadly defined criminal justice courses which probably include much introductory material and some systems approaches are more emphasized in the four-year school. Considering the total criminal justice systems concern for the juvenile problems, the program offerings in this area offer some encouragement but not as strong as would be expected at the four-year level when compared with the two-year level.

5. Academic Course Offerings Within Degree Programs

Table III-8 presents the academic courses that are normally included within the degree programs offered by criminal justice schools. These programs include degrees from the associate through the doctorate. The high incidence of sociology/psychology courses in all criminal justice degree programs is perhaps indicative of the broad nature of the material with labels that reflect the entire fields of behavior and society and that are the major disciplines of criminal justice programs.

TABLE III-6

DISTRIBUTION OF MAJOR AREAS OF EMPHASIS AND TYPES OF DEGREES IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROGRAMS (1971-1972 to 1975-1976)

	1972		1973		1974		1975		1976	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
All Degree Programs	1,233	100.0	1,235	100.0	1,333	100.0	1,509	100.0	1,633	100.0
Major Areas of Curriculum Emphasis										
Law Enforcement	712	57.7	618	50.0	612	46.0	641	42.5	602	36.9
Corrections	186	15.0	189	15.3	192	14.4	210	13.9	256	15.7
Judicial Administration	12	1.0	10	.8	12	.9	11	.7	12	.7
Criminal Justice	133	10.8	197	16.0	280	21.0	273	24.9	516	31.6
Juvenile Justice	8	.6	9	.7	11	.8	11	.7	7	.4
Criminology	52	4.2	58	4.7	57	4.3	57	3.8	48	2.9
Other Criminal Justice Related	130	10.5	154	12.5	169	12.7	206	13.7	165	10.1
Type of Degree										
Certificate Programs	199	16.1	55	4.5	51	3.8	47	3.1	41	2.5
Associate Degree	602	48.8	665	53.8	716	53.7	795	52.7	820	50.2
Bachelor's Degrees	302	24.5	358	29.0	390	31.7	463	30.7	526	32.2
Master's Degrees	105	8.5	132	10.7	152	11.4	179	11.8	214	13.1
Doctorates	25	2.0	25	2.0	24	1.8	25	1.7	32	2.0

Source: NMS LEEP Institutional Data File (1976).

TABLE III-7

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE COURSES OFFERED BY TYPE OF SCHOOL, ACADEMIC YEAR 1975-76

Type of Course	2-Year	4-Year
All Courses	100.0	100.0
Law Enforcement	53.7	19.7
Corrections	9.5	7.3
Judicial	.5	.9
Probation/Parole	1.7	1.2
Juvenile Justice	5.2	4.7
Sociology/Psychology	.4	.8
Security	2.2	.7
Criminal Justice	8.7	14.1
Other	18.5	51.5

Source: NMS LEEP Institutional Data File (1976).

TABLE III-8

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ACADEMIC COURSES WITHIN DEGREE PROGRAMS, ACADEMIC YEAR 1975-76

Degree Programs[a]	Total All Disciplines	Academic Courses Offered							
		Basic	Law	Administration	Sociology/ Psychology	Political Science/History	Forensic	Practical/ Technical	Social Service
School with Programs, Total	100.0	16.0	15.9	12.8	22.2	4.6	3.3	15.4	9.7
Law Enforcement	100.0	16.9	16.2	13.8	16.0	2.6	4.3	21.0	9.2
Corrections	100.0	16.1	13.1	12.6	23.5	2.8	2.7	16.9	12.2
Judicial Administration	100.0	20.9	17.4	15.1	20.9	1.2	1.2	14.0	9.3
Criminal Justice	100.0	16.8	17.1	12.2	23.9	6.0	3.1	12.7	8.3
Juvenile Justice	100.0	21.7	10.1	17.4	23.2	1.5	2.9	13.0	8.7
Criminology	100.0	18.8	14.8	10.7	22.8	4.4	6.0	13.4	8.7
Other Criminal Justice Related	100.0	11.3	17.1	13.0	30.0	8.4	1.4	7.7	11.7

[a] In the case of an institution with more than one degree program, all of the courses are counted under each degree subject matter area. For example, this table indicates that among the criminal justice courses taught at institutions that offer a juvenile justice degree program, 2.9 percent of the courses are forensics--not that 2.8 percent of the courses directly applicable to a juvenile justice major are in the forensics area.

Source: NMS Analysis of LEEP Institutional Applications (1976).

Perhaps the most revealing in terms of course content is the high concentration of basic and practical courses. They involve approximately one-third of the content in all major areas of program emphasis. While these conditions may mean either a lack of program definition or an attempt to stress practical application of the theory and essential knowledge within the formal courses, they do also seem to indicate problems of course labeling and of course immaturity. NMS field interviews with course directors indicated that as new approaches to a field of study emerge, they logically begin with titles such as "a survey of" or "introduction to." In time some of this content gives way to more advanced courses. However, directors caution that since there will always be more beginning students than advanced there may always be a significant basic content especially in the associate and bachelor degree programs.

The very low incidence of political science and history in the curriculum appears to reflect the fact that these departments do not seem to see much relationship in their normal course offerings to the criminal justice programs at present.

6. Course Enrollments

Table III-9 shows the total school population enrolled in degree programs as reported in the LEEP applications submitted for 1976. This table must be used with caution since there may be wide variations in the ways institutions report enrollments. It may be viewed as a general census of student enrollments as institutions reported such enrollments for LEEP application purposes.

Several general observations can be made within these limitations. First, the total student population of associate degree programs is almost double that of the bachelor's. This indicates both the heavy reliance of criminal justice personnel on the community college and the necessity for ensuring that the community college offerings maintain a high level of quality. Second, 20 states (including

TABLE III-9

NUMBER OF STUDENTS ENROLLED, BY STATE AND BY DEGREE PROGRAM, ACADEMIC YEAR 1975-76

State	Students	Certificates	Associate Degrees	Bachelor Degrees	Master Degrees
All States	179,806	3,427	105,653	59,308	10,683
Alabama	3,416	0	1,248	2,025	143
Alaska	0	0	0	0	0
Arizona	3,306	0	2,280	632	394
Arkansas	729	0	539	190	0
California	25,548	845	17,943	5,434	1,320
Colorado	1,805	0	833	635	335
Connecticut	2,754	0	1,238	1,237	279
Delaware	3,096	0	661	2,435	0
District of Columbia	848	319	232	297	0
Florida	9,816	33	7,983	1,524	276
Georgia	3,727	22	1,613	1,825	250
Hawaii	1,318	0	364	585	258
Idaho	454	0	193	261	0
Illinois	9,406	16	6,357	2,826	207
Indiana	1,397	0	894	478	25
Iowa	1,612	1	987	324	300
Kansas	1,125	0	830	295	0
Kentucky	878	0	248	427	203
Louisiana	1,677	0	599	1,078	0
Maine	993	0	693	308	0
Maryland	4,154	11	3,595	360	188
Massachusetts	9,327	0	4,932	4,086	309
Michigan	7,317	31	4,904	2,027	355
Minnesota	1,976	0	1,253	671	52
Mississippi	1,691	0	667	959	65
Missouri	4,083	0	21,12	1,638	263
Montana	350	0	40	180	0
Nebraska	659	0	28	400	231
Nevada	770	0	655	115	7
New Hampshire	487	0	23	460	4
New Jersey	6,294	130	3,441	2,723	0
New Mexico	807	0	366	428	13
New York	11,439	4	8,367	2,178	810

TABLE III-9
(continued)

State	Students	Certificates	Associate Degrees	Bachelor Degrees	Master Degrees
North Carolina	2,059	0	1,616	406	37
North Dakota	311	0	255	56	0
Ohio	6,555	20	4,915	1,371	249
Oklahoma	2,913	15	1,903	757	238
Oregon	4,158	0	2,491	1,450	210
Pennsylvania	7,274	1,848	2,939	2,205	252
Rhode Island	840	0	175	665	0
South Carolina	2,465	0	1,169	1,278	18
South Dakota	775	0	19	268	496
Tennessee	3,653	0	1,949	1,702	2
Texas	13,429	0	5,901	5,213	1,976
Utah	1,893	0	0	1,893	0
Vermont	438	0	274	164	0
Virginia	3,242	133	2,510	574	25
Washington	3,383	0	1,696	796	883
West Virginia	1,042	0	516	526	0
Wisconsin	2,078	0	1,131	924	17
Wyoming	39	0	4	35	0

Source: NMS LEEP Institutional Data Files (1976).

the District of Columbia) report more criminal justice students in their bachelor's programs than in their associate programs. Very logically this includes some states that have not developed extensive networks of community colleges (e.g., Utah, New Hampshire, New Mexico) as well as states where the state university provides the sole, major, and most convenient educational opportunity (e.g., Delaware, Mississippi, Idaho). Third, the table indicates the heavy commitment of California to the community college and the resultant accessibility of criminal justice programs to in-service personnel. The associate degree availability is likewise reflected in the probable commitment to move on to enrollment in bachelor's programs.

Third, the reported figures indicate very little activity in the certificate area except in about five states, especially Pennsylvania. Fourth, enrollment in masters' degree programs are less than one-fifth of total bachelors degree enrollments. Considering the level of bachelor's enrollment in Massachusetts, the master's enrollments are small by comparison.

7. Conclusions

Twenty-eight percent of all institutions of higher education in the country are recipients of LEEP funds. The largest number of criminal justice programs are at the associate level and are still heavily law enforcement oriented. At the bachelor's level law enforcement and criminal justice appear to be the most frequently used program titles. However, there seems to be no consensus with regard to program terminology. These changes have occurred in types of degrees offered: certificates are declining, associate degrees have remained relatively stable, bachelor's and master's degrees are increasing steadily, and doctorates have remained very stable.

Subject matter covered in the undergraduate programs is primarily law enforcement-oriented, followed by corrections in the two-year programs and criminal justice in the four-year programs, perhaps reflecting a tendency to move toward a systems approach. The heavy dominance of basic and practical applied courses points to the need for more advanced, upper-division curriculum development.

The large number of criminal justice students studying at the associate degree level indicates a need to concentrate quality evaluations of curriculum offerings, student services, and faculty preparation on schools offering associate degrees.

D. FIELD ANALYSIS OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROGRAMS

The previous section indicates the curriculum activities and student participation in criminal justice programs as reported by institutions submitting LEEP application forms. This section is an assessment of 26 schools (13 community colleges and 13 four-year institutions) visited by NMS during 1975. (The methods used in conducting these field interviews are described and the schools visited are listed in Appendix D.

The purpose of the in-depth interviews with program directors was to obtain first-hand information about some of the issues and problems raised about schools offering criminal justice programs and to compare the schools visited --in terms of their course administration, student enrollment, and faculty administration -- with other information available from LEEP forms analysis and expert panel judgment.

The results of the field survey supply information only about the 26 institutions visited and cannot be considered as representative of all colleges and universities with criminal justice programs. They are, therefore, a summary profile of how 26 institutions administer their programs.

The following subheadings correspond generally to the major areas of inquiry of the field survey.

1. Advisory Boards

Perhaps one of the most visible, direct links between academic institutions and the criminal justice field is the advisory board--a group of criminal justice practitioners serving the educational program. In view of their greater interest in responding to the lower-division educational needs of in-service personnel, it is not surprising to find that community colleges are more heavily committed to the use of advisory boards than four-year institutions. All of the community college respondents to the NMS on-site survey indicated that an advisory board exists at their institutions; about half of the responding four-year universities reported having such a board. In addition, community colleges reported more frequent use of their advisory boards--over 75 percent indicating that board meetings occur at least annually, whereas only 30 percent of universities with advisory boards reported such frequent meetings. In describing the representation on the board, community colleges and universities gave almost identical responses, with the most frequently mentioned representation being from law enforcement and corrections agencies.

2. Class Scheduling

In view of the shift work common to employees in the criminal justice field, class scheduling has been a problem throughout the years of criminal justice program development. Alternating time schedules (i.e., offering a course twice during the day so that either class may be attended, to accommodate swing shifts) and off-campus courses are two methods used for coping with scheduling problems.

Among survey respondents, 75 percent of the community colleges and 25 percent of the universities reported offering courses on alternating time schedules; the community colleges reported more off-campus courses than universities did. The differences between these types of institutions are not surprising, since they have different missions and serve different audiences. The community college can afford to introduce courses more quickly, especially through the use of part-time instructors, as a result of its greater institutional flexibility. Universities, on the other hand, usually need longer planning time for course scheduling, use fewer part-time faculty members, and typically incur far greater instructional costs--all mitigating against scheduling flexibility and course mobility.

All the four-year institutions surveyed did, however, tend to offer directed individual study and independent study course options (compared with less than 50 percent of community colleges). Such courses are generally considered upper-level, requiring relatively sophisticated, motivated, and self-starting students for successful completion.

3. Credit for Training and Experience in Criminal Justice Degree Programs

An often critical issue among educators has been the differentiation between training and education. There is an overlapping of these types of learning opportunities in criminal justice programs.[30] As training academies seek to upgrade their offerings through enhanced instructional and other resources, many turn to local educational institutions. This is reflected in the fact that almost three-fourths of the community colleges and less than one-half of universities reported administering some training for criminal justice agencies (most frequently for police; second, for corrections). Moreover, as efforts to upgrade training academies improve them to the point that the quality of instruction approaches that offered by educational institutions, the issue of credit for training emerges. The NMS found that this issue had been discussed thoroughly enough that, in law enforcement at least, the policies on giving credit for training are increasingly acceptable to both academicians and practitioners (e.g., direct affiliation and formal liaison of training activities with an academic institution).

The criteria used by community colleges and universities for certifying such training programs for college credit were: course length and content, teachers' credentials, testing and grading procedures, and required coursework. Seventy-five percent of the community colleges and 30 percent of the universities surveyed reported awarding credit for training that an agency provides for its personnel.

In addition to an individual college or university award of credit for programs and courses sponsored by noncollegiate organizations, the American Council on Education and the University of the State of New York jointly sponsor a program of formal review of educational programs and courses conducted in noncollegiate settings. Such programs and courses are normally evaluated and credit recommendations are developed to guide colleges and universities as they consider awarding credit to individuals who have completed noncollegiate instruction. The endeavor is to provide academic recognition and to motivate students to enroll in formal postsecondary programs of study. The Police Recruit Training Program of Suffolk County, New York is an example of this effort.[29]

On the horizon in criminal justice, as well as in many other fields, is the issue of credit for career experience. In the NMS survey, 50 percent of the community colleges and universities reported involvement with certifying experience, either for credit, to substitute for a course, or both. The criteria normally used are student's type of experience, performance, written test, and interview adequacy. As this concept becomes more acceptable and measurable, it is likely to play an important role in a field of study such as criminal justice which has so many adult students with prior work experience.

4. Placement Services

In an area of academic study as career-oriented as criminal justice, placement of students upon graduation becomes a far more critical issue than may be the case in traditional liberal arts endeavors.

Results of the academic institution survey as shown in Table III-10 tended to show greatest placement success with private security and law enforcement agencies, and greatest difficulty with placement in criminal justice planning and correctional agencies. It might seem surprising that universities would report placement concerns over the planning field, since planning agencies traditionally require a minimum of a bachelor's degree. But this is an endeavor new to criminal justice, and it may be that few new graduates are sufficiently skilled to represent themselves as competent planners.

In corrections, many universities have been teaching treatment and therapeutic skills through sociology and social work. But current criminal justice students may well be aspiring more to administrative and managerial roles than to treatment, and they may be adverse to starting out "at the bottom" in the correctional officer role, as is so often recommended by correctional leaders. Success in dealing with private security and law enforcement agencies, especially on the part of the community college, could have been anticipated, since that has been the strength of the community college movement in this field for over a decade. Involvement with these types of agencies has likely been promoted also by physical proximity, whereas in the case of corrections, employing agencies may be quite a distance from educational institutions.

5. Internships

Closely related to the operation of placement services within criminal justice educational programs is the availability of field experience for preservice students--some type of arrangement for on-the-job experience related

TABLE III-10

COLLEGE SUCCESSES IN PLACEMENT EFFORTS IN THE LAST TWO YEARS (1973-75) WITH CRIMINAL JUSTICE AGENCIES

Types of Agencies	Community Colleges	Universities	Total
Law Enforcement			
Not applicable	19%	18%	19%
Successful	50	55	53
Marginally successful	25	24	25
Considerable difficulty	5	3	4
Corrections			
Not applicable	60	20	40
Successful	25	48	37
Marginally successful	8	18	13
Considerable difficulty	6	14	10
Courts			
Not applicable	83	64	74
Successful	13	23	17
Marginally successful	0	9	5
Considerable difficulty	4	5	5
Criminal Justice Planning			
Not applicable	83	36	60
Successful	8	27	18
Marginally successful	8	18	9
Considerable difficulty	0	18	13
Private Security			
Not applicable	17	18	18
Successful	50	82	66
Marginally successful	33	0	17
Considerable difficulty	0	0	0

Source: NMS Field Survey of Educational Institutions (1975).

to the student's occupational goals. Through careful selection of agencies, an internship can provide the student with a variety of experiences of significant educational value.

Table III-11 indicates that almost all of the universities surveyed had internship programs, and Table III-12 indicates the agencies most likely to receive interns for training. The police and corrections agency receptivity is somewhat to be expected. The high incidence of juvenile agency participation, in view of the rising juvenile problems, is encouraging.

There are, however, difficulties inherent in the internship activity.[31] Many youthful college students have never before had to accept the structure and regulated procedures that they encounter in their placement experience. The temptation to question intensely and even challenge their new surroundings is ever-present; the situation can become awkward unless the agency and, specifically, internship supervisors are accustomed to outsiders in their midst.

Educators reported to NMS interviewers that many interns also indicate that little official time is devoted to looking after them and, in fact, they were figuratively taught to swim by being thrown in. Despite careful university/agency planning, it is nonetheless likely that time allotted to the care and nurturing of college seniors can be minimal at best, particularly in some of the biggest, busiest organizations. Fortunately, there are some exceptions (e.g., Los Angeles Sheriff's Department and the Dade County, Florida, Department of Public Safety), where formal internship arrangements are set into motion each summer, with full-time coordinators for nationally selected and screened university seniors.

Another academic dilemma is how to evaluate or grade internships. The college faculty member may know the agency well, may visit it on a scheduled

TABLE III-11

EXISTENCE OF AN INTERNSHIP PROGRAM THAT PLACES STUDENTS IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE AGENCIES

	Community Colleges		Universities		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Yes	8	62	11	92	12	76
No	5	38	1	8	6	24
Total	13	100	12	100	18	100

Source: NMS Field Survey of Educational Institutions (1975).

TABLE III-12

TYPES OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE AGENCIES IN WHICH INTERNS ARE PLACED[a]

Agencies	Community Colleges	Universities	Total
Police	7	11	18
Corrections	5	11	16
Courts	0	7	7
Juvenile	3	10	13
Other governmental agency	1	8	9
Private (industrial/retail security)	2	5	7
Other	0	5	5

[a] Multiple responses prohibit calculation of percentages.

N = 8 community colleges; 11 universities.

Source: NMS Field Survey of Educational Institutions (1975).

basis, and may even meet the intern in the agency setting. But there is always the possibility of a scholastically unsuccessful field experience in spite of efforts to insure variety of assignments and necessary organization feedback. Too often, the agency evaluates the student in the extremes: very positively because he or she paid attention, was little trouble, and complied well with all menial tasks; or negatively because he or she did not perform in the traditional manner expected of all "employees," did not accept a dress code as prescribed, or challenged standard operating procedure instead of conforming to it.

Following the student's field experience, there is a need to interpret that experience objectively. This is perhaps the greatest shortcoming of today's criminal justice internship. It is often not feasible to return students to a formal debriefing course, since their schedules have other priorities. The addition and much-needed extra benefit of formal college/agency sessions following internships might become the ultimate means for improving college courses by reflecting the realities of the field.

Finally, educators pointed out that internships can and do frequently lead to employment in the agencies where the students originally worked. Volume IV of this report also shows that internships in prosecutors and defenders offices frequently become a priority means for employment for aspiring lawyers.

6. Relationships with Criminal Justice Agencies and Other Academic Institutions

Table III-12 showed that academic institutions had their best relationships with law enforcement agencies in the placement of interns. Table III-13 shows this same relationshp maintained with respect to acceptance of college course offerings.

TABLE III-13

RESPONDENTS' EVALUATIONS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THEIR PROGRAM OFFERINGS AND LOCAL CRIMINAL JUSTICE AGENCIES

College Course Offerings	Community Colleges		Universities		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Law Enforcement						
Mutually beneficial	13	100.0	10	77.0	23	88.0
Problems exist	0	-	2	15.0	2	8.0
Not applicable	0	-	1	8.0	1	4.0
Total	13	100.0	13	100.0	26	100.0
Corrections						
Mutually beneficial	7	54.0	9	75.0	16	64.0
Problems exist	0	-	2	17.0	2	8.0
Not applicable	6	46.0	1	8.0	7	28.0
Total	13	100.0	12	100.0	25	100.0
Courts						
Mutually beneficial	3	23.0	6	50.0	9	36.0
Problems exist	0	-	0	-	0	-
Not applicable	10	77.0	6	50.0	16	64.0
Total	13	100.0	12	100.0	25	100.0

Source: NMS Field Survey of Educational Institutions (1975).

Such relationships could be expected since criminal justice programs most often originated with heavy law enforcement program emphasis. These programs generally have a rather lengthy history of dealing with law enforcement agencies and, hence, more time to resolve differences and develop meaningful, amiable relationships.

In general, few problems in dealing with corrections agencies were reported, although educational institutions appeared ambivalent as to whether to classify relations with corrections as "mutually beneficial" or "not applicable." This seems to indicate that among those institutions that have developed such liaisons, things appear to be running smoothly, but that not all institutions have made positive efforts to establish the same type of relationships with corrections agencies as they have with law enforcement agencies.

As for relationships with the courts, these are not yet well-developed. Since the courts would traditionally be expected to have educational liaisons with the established law schools rather than with the relatively new criminal justice programs, this is not surprising.

a. Articulation. Beyond relationships with the criminal justice agencies themselves, the establishment of coordinating mechanisms between the two distinct types of institutions offering criminal justice programs (two- and four-year) is essential to the avoidance of transferability and duplication problems. The articulation issue was not created by law enforcement/criminal justice programs and, in fact, is not now serious, but it is still an issue.[32]

The two-year school engaged in career-oriented, occupational education intends to prepare someone for work and, thus, must deliver saleable skills. Transfer ability was simply not a high priority. Yet, the community college does not wish to see the associate degree recipient penalized when he or she pursues further educational opportunities.

Based upon the limited on-site survey, it appears that the transfer issue may not be as controversial as it may have been in the past. With three-fourths of the community colleges reporting that all of their criminal justice associate degree curriculum is designed to be transferable, and about the same reporting no difficulty in the past two years (1973-75) with the transfer of credits from their programs to four-year institutions, the community colleges surveyed appear to be working out acceptable transfer arrangments for their students.

Although almost three-fifths of the universities surveyed indicated that they had rejected courses from two-year institutions for credit within the last two years (1973-75), the rejected courses were primarily described as being vocational skill training and, therefore, presumably not rejected arbitrarily. Most universities indicate that the two-year credit transfer issue virtually does not exist or entails only a few problems.

The type of articulation agreement reported by both as currently in existence and recommended by respondents as workable for future transferability and duplication problems involved some informal understanding or coordination. Respondents in the NMS interviews suggested the following solutions for transferability and duplication patterns:

- Informally coordinate between schools (preferred solution)
- Make written agreements between schools
- Change community college courses to make them more acceptable
- Reduce CJ coursework at the community college level
- Establish a system for program accreditation

Institutions appear unwilling to enter into and be bound by state-imposed restrictions. But as more students enroll in low-cost community colleges and desire to continue beyond the associate level, there may be more pressure to formalize and expedite the process, possibly at the state level.

a. Accreditation. There are various definitions and explanations of the process and the functions of accreditation. The Council on Postsecondary Accreditation (COPA) explains the function and process in the following manner:

> Accreditation denotes that there has been a third-party examination and evaluation, usually by peers, through some mutually agreed-upon process in order to arrive at a quality determination of that which is being examined. The results of that assessment are then made publicly available as an indication to all interested parties of the quality that was perceived and attested to by disinterested parties.[33]

As criminal justice agencies have become increasingly aware of the need to upgrade the qualifications of their personnel, the implementation of criminal justice academic programs at institutions of higher education has proliferated throughout the country. Incentive for the establishment and expansion of such programs has been provided by several sources: pre-service students demanding more relevant, career-oriented educational curricula; in-service students encouraged by agency supervisors and/or incentive pay programs; and the availability of federal tuition funds through the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP).

The national association of criminal justice academicians, the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, recently (1976) published Accreditation Guidelines for Postsecondary Criminal Justice Education Programs in an attempt to distinguish between quality criminal justice academic programs and those that are merely taking advantage of extensive student interest, federal tuition funds, and the absence of accreditation requirements in this field. Appendix E contains an analysis of the accreditation problem by the 1976-77 President of the Academy, Gordon Misner, and treats in detail the Academy's proposals. The ACJS standards are also discussed in Chapter IV of this volume.

7. Student Enrollment

There are a number of reasons for pursuing higher education in criminal justice. Students may enroll in anticipation of future educational requirements being adopted. More often, enrollment is due to continuing education momentum that exists in many agencies, often encouraged by one particular administrator. Incentive pay plans and LEEP assistance have increased enrollments. Subtle or not-so-subtle promotion influences may accrue to those known to be improving themselves. Then too, enrollment could be the result of a desire for greater job satisfaction and, perhaps, the hope of providing better service.

a. Admissions Requirements. In the 1950's, police science programs typically had admission requirements ranging from successful completion of a physical examination to criminal record clearances, making enrollment similar to joining a law enforcement agency. Opposition to this grew, especially with the development of positions that do not necessarily involve sworn duties. Also, the lack of standard entrance requirements among law enforcement agencies aided the departure from these common but not universal standards.

Today there are few enrollment restrictions in criminal justice education, and, unlike certain health career fields of study, access is not even limited by enrollment quotas resulting from faculty and equipment restrictions. This is largely reflected in the data obtained by the NMS from institutions of higher education. Student acceptance rates for criminal justice programs, calculated on the basis of 1975 applications and acceptances in each type of degree program for the 26 institutions visited, are as follows: associate, 80 percent (265 applications, 211 acceptances); bachelor's, 88 percent (97 applicants, 85 acceptances); and graduate, 91 percent (34 applicants, 31 acceptances).

When asked to compare the entrance requirements for the criminal justice program with those of other programs at their institutions, community college respondents unanimously agreed that their standards are the same as those of other programs. While acceptance of four-fifths of all bachelors' applicants may seem to be a high rate, the survey included state colleges under definition of "university," which may have tended to increase the rate slightly. In addition, the effect of community college transfers into four-year programs must be considered in reviewing the acceptance rate. It is likely that successful two-year graduates are viewed more favorably than entering freshmen who have not yet proven college-level ability, thus tending to inflate the college admission rate. Most surprising may be the high acceptance rate at the graduate level (91 percent). The exceedingly small number of institutions and students involved in calculating this figure leaves it open to considerable question. However, the universities included in this study generally had a short history of experience with graduate education and were, therefore, likely giving it extra attention. In fact, since they probably had not had sufficient numbers of applicants yet to determine the best method for assessing later success in a graduate program, it is possible that they were admitting most applicants in an attempt to gain experience for use in determining future rejections. Finally, the high acceptance figures at both the bachelor's and graduate level at universities may also reflect their entrance standards, since somewhat over three-fourths reported the same standards for the criminal justice program as for entrance into other programs at their institutions. They may also, however, be a result of heavy in-service, part-time, evening student enrollments, since such individuals can be admitted as "special students," affecting admission statistics for the whole criminal justice program.

b. Student Population Characteristics. The largest concentrations of part-time students were reported at the associate and graduate level. This is to be expected, since the community college addresses the initial educational demands of in-service personnel, whereas universities largely attract students entering directly from high school, and by the time the student is ready to embark on graduate studies, he or she has usually obtained employment.

Few difference were perceived between in-service and pre-service students, except that in-service students were more likely than pre-service to be rated as superior to the general student body in "level of maturity," "likelihood of graduating," and "career motivation." Since in-service students are usually older, it is natural that they should have received higher maturity rankings. Apparently, age also denotes dedication and motivation, which are reflected in the higher rating for "likelihood of graduating."

Tables III-14 and III-15 address the question of women and minorities. Educators were asked how the percentages of pre-service female and minority

TABLE III-14

COMPARISON OF THE PERCENTAGE OF 1974-75 PRE-SERVICE WOMEN CRIMINAL JUSTICE MAJORS WITH THE 1972-73 ACADEMIC YEAR

	Community Colleges		Universities		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Current percentage higher	10	83%	10	83%	20	83%
Current percentage lower	0	-	0	-	0	-
Both percentages the same	2	17	2	17	4	17
Total	12	100	12	100	24	100

Source: NMS Field Survey of Educational Institutions (1975).

students have changed since the 1972-73 school year. An increase in female enrollments was reported by 83 percent of community colleges and universities; an increase in minority enrollments was indicated by 58 percent of the community colleges and 33 percent of the universities.

Without comparable data on student characteristics in other types of professional programs, it is difficult to assess the increases in enrollments. In general, it is possible that the considerable recent increases in career opportunities and conditions have attracted larger numbers of pre-service women and minority students. As juvenile services, including decentralized correctional activities, receive increasing attention, it is likely that the appeal of this field to women is enhanced. The pendulum has swung from discouraging women majors to actively encouraging them--all largely due to programs administrators' and faculties' perceptions of women's employability. Likewise, minority group increases can perhaps be traced to the considerable attention that such potential criminal justice students are receiving through career promotion efforts in the various criminal justice agencies.

TABLE III-15

COMPARISON OF THE PERCENTAGE OF 1974-75 PRE-SERVICE MINORITY CRIMINAL JUSTICE MAJORS WITH THE 1972-73 ACADEMIC YEAR

	Community Colleges		Universities		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Current percentage higher	7	58%	4	33%	11	46%
Current percentage lower	2	17	0	-	2	8
Both percentages the same	3	25	8	67	11	46
Total	12	100	12	100	24	100

Source: NMS Field Survey of Educational Institutions (1975).

c. Student Services. Among institutions surveyed by the NMS, all community colleges and all but two universities indicated that career counseling is available for their criminal justice students, with over half of the community colleges and universities offering such services within the criminal justice program (rather than through an institution-wide counseling office). When indicating how academic counseling was provided, both two- and four-year institutions mentioned assignment of criminal justice instructors as counselors most frequently, closely followed by provision of counseling through a college-wide office.

d. Conclusions. Based upon the NMS interviews with criminal justice educators, the following observations are made. Expansion of criminal justice program enrollments will be inevitably linked to increases in entrance and promotion standards in criminal justice agencies. As more departments demand one or two years of higher education for entrance, the institutions that produce a quality applicant will become more secure. This has already happened in nursing, social services, dental hygiene, medical technology, and other fields in which credentials depend on two years of academic preparation. When one considers the potential for academic involvement in correctional officer upgrading--particularly in counseling and treatment functions, jail staff improvement, and the gradual evolution of probation/parole assistants--there seem to be many program and enrollment expansion possibilities.

A student mix will continue, with in-service personnel participating to the extent that they are encouraged by LEEP and rewarded by pay increments or promotion prerequisites. Since standards and salaries are not remaining at a standstill, the younger present employees will remain in the educational pipeline. The even younger, pre-service students should be encouraged by new entrance requirements, or because they are women or minority group members who can increase their potential, or because agency leadership strongly endorses continuing education after high school. This encouragement may come formally, through a cadet program and career development plan, or informally, through counselors, media, and career guidance.

8. Program Faculty

a. Faculty Credentials and Salary Levels. Among the institutions included in the NMS academic survey, there appears to be substantial agreement between existing faculty credentials and those recommended by the guidelines of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences: ACJS recommends a minimum of a law or master's degree for undergraduate faculty and a doctorate for graduate faculty. The majority of both two-year (83 percent) and four-year (62 percent) institutions agreed in the NMS survey that a master's degree would be the academic level which would be required for an incoming criminal justice faculty member at the rank of assistant professor. It must be noted, however, that 17 percent of responding community colleges indicated that they were willing to require only the bachelor's degree, and 38 percent of the universities listed the doctorate as required at their institution. A Ph.D. is commonly required for the rank of assistant professor at a university in many other fields.

The mean starting salary for such an individual was reported as $12,836 by community colleges and $13,227 by universities. Comparing criminal justice starting salaries with those offered by other departments in their schools, 75 percent of the community colleges and 46 percent of the universities ranked the criminal justice faculty's starting figure "about the same," while 54 percent of the universities and 25 percent of the community colleges ranked their programs figure as "higher than other departments."

b. Selection Criteria and Degree Preferences. On a scale of one to five, participants were requested to rate the order of desirability of certain faculty criteria. Two- and four-year institutions were generally in agreement with regard to their perspective of the value of the factors listed:

- Academic credentials were considered high in the rankings of both community colleges (58 percent) and universities (83 percent).
- Relevance of an applicant's academic field to criminal justice was likewise rated high by both community colleges (75 percent) and universities (67 percent).
- Prior research experience was rated low by both community colleges (100 percent) and universities (83 percent).
- Opinion regarding the desirability of prior criminal justice occupational experience was relatively evenly divided, with 50 percent of the community colleges and 33 percent of the universities rating it high, and 25 percent of the community colleges and 33 percent of the universities rating it low.

The low rating given teaching experience is somewhat surprising; perhaps it reflects the backgrounds of those interviewed, most of whom were prior criminal justice practitioners and not products of previous teaching or research-oriented positions. Although community colleges might have been expected to give prior research experience a low priority, in view of the fact that two-year programs rarely are research oriented, the university rejection of this factor is surprising. It may be a result of the fact that criminal justice-related research programs are a fairly recent development in universities covered by the survey, or it may again be due to the backgrounds of those interviewed.

Even when asked what they believed to be the minimum degree level full-time criminal justice faculty members should possess, the majority of community colleges (85 percent) and universities (62 percent) were in agreement that it should be the master's level. However, opinions were sharply divided on the issue of whether or not a shortage of candidates exists at this level: 77 percent of the community colleges did not perceive such a shortage; 69 percent of the universities did. Likewise, when asked to assess whether there is a shortage of candidates with appropriate academic specialization at the minimum degree level, opinions were again diverse: 69 percent of the community colleges did not perceive such a shortage; 85 percent of the universities did. Responses were somewhat more in agreement on the question of whether there is a shortage of candidates at the master's degree level with relevant criminal justice occupational experience: 54 percent of the community colleges and 77 percent of the universities noted the existence of such a shortage.

In discussing faculty shortages, it must be recognized that perceptions vary with geographic areas and depend upon the perspective from which the respondent views the field and its needs. Moreover, it is logical for two-year institutions to believe that they could obtain persons with a master's to teach technical subjects, and for universities to perceive greater difficulities in locating suitable candidates with appropriate degrees to teach higher level, more complex, issues-and-analysis types of courses.

c. Full-time/Part-time Comparisons. In comparing full-time with part-time faculty members according to specified criteria, full-time faculty were generally rated superior to part-time.

- On level of academic degree held, a majority of community colleges (54 percent) rated them about the same; the majority of universities (62 percent) rated full-time as superior.
- On knowledge of the criminal justice system, a majority of community colleges (62 percent) rated them about the same; 46 percent of universities agreed.

- On criminal justice occupational experience, a majority of community colleges (69 percent) rated them about the same; the majority of universities (62 percent) rated part-time as superior.
- On teaching ability, a majority of both community colleges (69 percent) and universities (54 percent) rated full-time as superior.
- On advising and counseling students, of both types of institutions, 85 percent rated full-time as superior.
- On knowledge of the program, community colleges (92 percent) and universities (85 percent) rated full-time as superior.
- On assisting students with job placement, community colleges (46 percent) and universities (62 percent) indicated that full-time faculty members are superior.

A composite assessment of these ratings reveals that full-time faculty members were more likely to be rated as superior to part-time in level of academic degree, teaching ability, student advising/counseling, program knowledge, and job placement assistance, while the most favorable ratings received for part-time were in knowledge of the criminal justice system and criminal justice occupational experience. In these respects, they were generally rated about the same as full-time. Perhaps the most surprising result is the low rating given the teaching ability of adjuncts. Since two-year institutions are often dependent on part-time instructors, it was not expected that such a sizeable proportion of them (over two-thirds) would rate full-time faculty as superior in teaching ability.

d. Faculty Course Assignments and Student/Faculty Ratios. The mean number of full-time faculty members assigned solely or primarily to the criminal justice program was 4.0 among community colleges and 4.8 among universities. When grant-funded positions are eliminated from this figure, the mean remains at 4.0 in two-year schools, but decreases to 4.6 in four-year institutions, among the institutions visited.

Full-time faculty members teach an average of 54 percent of the criminal justice courses at community colleges; at universities, they teach an average of 63 percent of such courses. The mean ratio of criminal justice students (in full-time equivalents) to full-time criminal justice faculty members is 90:1 among community college respondents and 63:1 among universities. When the ratio of full-time equivalent criminal justice students is considered in terms of the total number of criminal justice faculty members (also calculated in full-time equivalents), the mean for community colleges is 67:1; for universities, 40:1.

The ACJS guidelines recommend that no fewer than 50 percent of the credit hours offered by associate programs and 70 percent of the credit hours offered by baccalaureate programs be taught by full-time faculty members. On this very limited, and not necessarily representative sample the community colleges visited appeared to adhere to the standard while the universities fell slightly below.

On the other hand universities do better with the student/faculty ratio, which the ACJS guidelines define as 1:60 for undergraduate and 1:20 for graduate programs, calculated on a full-time equivalent basis.

e. Conclusions. Some of the conclusions reached from the personal interviews with course directors on faculty trends are as follows. Perhaps one of the changes most likely to occur in "typical" law enforcement programs, already perceptible, will be gradually reduced reliance upon the retired, single-agency practitioner for faculty instructional responsibilities. The choice of such individuals was not necessarily the result of any conscious effort to change course emphasis, but reflected the nature of the early hiring process (particularly among community colleges), when agency retirees from law enforcement joined most faculties as the logical first group to inaugurate the many new programs.

Experienced faculty in second careers will continue in community college instructional positions for some time. In the future, however, instruction will increasingly become the responsibility of recent graduate degree recipients who possess only a few years of actual field experience. A recent limited study of the insider and outsider in criminal justice education in LEAA Region VII concludes that despite differences among these groups an appropriate mix between the two will emerge as the probable faculty composition for the future.[34] Thus, a balance will begin to evolve, with field experience and recent graduate study still present, but differently weighted. The younger instructor may envision community college teaching as a first step in a career, rather than as a second career, and it will be this rearranging of personnel strengths that is most likely to influence course objectives and actual content. The newer instructor may also be more inclined to make the impact upon newer issues confronting the criminal justice system that were regarded as less critical during the start-up, fast-growth era, when faculty needed to respond to the most dramatically-stated demands of the law enforcement agencies that had held higher education as a low priority for so long.

Finances

Because of traditionally full teaching loads and the frequent use of part-time instructors, an extensive investment is not normally required to finance a program in this field. But a college criminal justice department may well incur costs that are not actually budgeted. These costs are usually met through a school- or university-wide fund source controlled by a dean or vice president. Nonetheless, they represent sizeable resource outlays, even though the college may not separately identify each program or department by each specific expenditure item.

Beyond the well-known costs associated with CJ programs (e.g., faculty, equipment, etc.), there exist a number of "hidden" education costs that are not necessarily cited in an institution's departmental budget. Among these are clerical personnel, counselors, guest lecturers, higher level administrators, occupational advisory committee members, evaluation/teacher improvement instructors, consultants, administration of large weekend/evening program offerings, and other administrative costs. While these expenditures are largely indirect costs that the criminal justice program itself could not be expected to cover, they nevertheless must be taken into consideration when planning the program.

For comparative purposes, criminal justice programs surveyed by NMS in its field activities were requested to provide figures for their total criminal justice program budget in both fiscal 1973 and 1975. The mean total budget figures reported are as follows: (Table III-16).

TABLE III-16

AVERAGE TOTAL COST OF A CRIMINAL JUSTICE FIELD PROGRAM, 1973-75

	Community Colleges	Universities	Total (combined mean)
1973	$66,833	$127,979	$100,803
1975	78,622	184,730	134,468
Percent Change	+17	+44	+33

Source: NMS Field Survey of Educational Institutions, 1975.

It is difficult to interpret budget figures for criminal justice programs without comparable data from other academic programs in the same institutions. However, it is apparent that budgets increased between 1973 and 1975 in most participating criminal justice programs. The largest percentage increases were reported at the university level, with community colleges reporting slight increases overall. While inflation must be considered a factor in assessing these figures, it is nonetheless notable that, some 10 years after initiation, these programs are continuing to enjoy increasing internal fiscal support, especially in times when many higher educational programs are suffering cutbacks.

a. Funding Recommendations. Based on their experience, criminal justice program administrators participating in the survey were asked what recommendations they would make to federal, state, and LEEP funding agencies. In Chart III-1 the two most frequently-cited recommendations of both community colleges and universities regarding federal funding were to weigh program quality more heavily in making grant decisions and to more actively evaluate execution of the grant. In terms of state planning agencies (Chart III-2) universities' most frequently cited recommendations were to weigh program quality more heavily in making grant decisions, to more actively evaluate the proposal before giving grants, and to more actively evaluate execution of the grant. With regard to the funding of LEEP (Chart III-3), the most frequently cited recommendations were to reinstitute the funding of pre-service students and to discourage programs that do not receive substantial support from the school administration.

b. Faculty Compensation. The most obvious fiscal commitment that the academic institution can make to any program is the tenurable, full-time faculty academic position. Thus, each state has a formula for calculating

CHART III-1

CJ ACADEMIC PROGRAM ADMINISTRATORS' RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FEDERAL FUNDING AGENCIES

(in order of priority)

- Weigh program quality more heavily in making grant decisions
- More actively evaluate execution of the grant
- More actively evaluate proposal before giving grants
- Allocate a greater percentage of money at the federal level
- Allow greater leverage in utilization of grant funds
- Make greater percentage of money available in block grants for states to allocate
- Put more emphasis on funding for facilities
- Distribute funds more evenly

Source: NMS Field Survey of Educational Institutions, 1975.

CHART III-2

CJ ACADEMIC PROGRAM ADMINISTRATORS' RECOMMENDATIONS FOR STATE FUNDING AGENCIES AND FOR THE FUNDING OF LEEP

(in order of priority)

- Weigh program quality more heavily in making grant decisions
- More actively evaluate proposal before giving grants
- More actively evaluate execution of the grant
- Allow greater leverage in utilization of grant funds
- Distribute funds more evenly
- Put more emphasis on funding for facilities

Source: NMS Field Survey of Educational Institutions, 1975.

CHART III-3

CJ ACADEMIC PROGRAM ADMINISTRATORS' RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE FUNDING OF LEEP

(in order of priority)

- Reinstitute the funding of pre-service students
- Discourage programs that do not receive substantial financial support from their school
- Put emphasis on program quality in making funding decisions
- Discourage schools that have not developed criminal justice programs
- Consider tuition costs in making funding decisions
- Distribute funds evenly (according to student population among eligible schools)

Source: NMS Field Survey of Educational Institutions, 1975.

the total number of positions available in its public institutions. The council on higher education generally decides how these are divided statewide. How they are divided within an institution is generally decided by an academic affairs vice president. Externally funded positions for special purposes can come and go almost at departmental discretion, but state-supported, so-called permanent institutional instructional positions exist at the discretion of legislatures and state councils, budget offices, and educational officials. Hence, it is vital for an institution to obtain these tenurable positions for criminal justice. If they are not present, the likelihood of internal losses through reassignments appears greater, curriculum development is limited, and, ultimately, student course enrollments are in jeopardy.

Thus, unless, the criminal justice program has begun with such positions and, perhaps, succeeded in increasing its internal allotment, it might be regarded by the institutional administration as not being a permanent program. Even if it were remaining steady after several years of growth, one could question the future potential of the program, especially if it has not become a department.

In general, academically and organizationally speaking, centers, institutes, and such programs are externally supported and nondegree granting, and, hence, their faculties are not officially counted in the same permanent manner as those in departments and schools. Therefore, in the faculty pecking order, it would suggest that criminal justice programs must incorporate allocated state-supported positions if they are to achieve status, recognition, and stability that the NMS field interviews identified as a troublesome issue among criminal justice educators.

c. Conclusions. There are a number of "hidden" educational costs in criminal justice programs, some characteristic of many university courses, others peculiar to criminal justice. Among them are (1) the special advisory committees needed to assist agency-school joint determination of course needs, (2) instructor improvement programs in an area that typically does not produce instructors from graduate students, (3) extensive evening and other uniquely scheduled courses to respond to the needs of in-service personnel, and (4) outside funding for program development and faculty expansion (such funds in this field are minimal, outside of LEEP, when compared with those for other federally supported fields.) In order to have more balanced LEEP funding, administrators desire the reinstitution of funding for pre-service students. They also discourage funding from outside sources for schools that have no internal financial commitment to the criminal justice programs. They also recommend weighing heavily current program qualities before making grants; then properly evaluating results after grants are made. The commitment of a school to a criminal justice program should include allocating tenurable positions to achieve stability and appropriate recognition within the university as a whole.

This concludes the assessment of the education program offerings, issues and problems of the community colleges and universities/institutions. The chapter traced the historical developments of criminal justice education and delineated the program offerings and issues in the five categories: certificates, associate, baccalaureate and master's degrees and graduate programs. It examined the course offerings and student and faculty administration as reported by institutions submitting LEEP applications. It further reported the findings of a limited on-the-spot survey and interviews with the program directors of 26 selected institutions in order to determine how courses were administered, students serviced and faculty developed, paid and utilized.

Certain conclusions were reached as the result of those varied assessments and the following recommendations are made in reference to the most critical issues identified. Some of these recommendations are directly related to the LEEP program. Indeed, Chapter III's findings, conclusions and recommendations lead directly to and furnish a detailed background for the overall assessment of LEEP in the following chapter.

D. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Curriculum Development

It is recommended that curriculum development begin to delineate more clearly the course offerings at the associate, baccalaureate, and master's degree levels. Perhaps the ACJS accreditation procedures can be a vehicle to assist in this effort.

This curriculum development should recognize the need for more in-depth, analytical, advanced, and concentrated courses rather than general, basic, and survey-oriented courses especially at the baccalaureate level.

In order to stimulate these new, upper division course developments immediately it is recommended that LEAA fund several pilot curriculum development efforts, addressing each of the criminal justice sectors (police, courts, and corrections). This curriculum effort would be to appraise new developments in criminal justice and concentrate on several pilot courses that might clearly assist in fulfilling projected agency needs for occupations requiring new skills and knowledge.

2. Recognition of Training and Experience

It is recommended that the Federal Government assume the initiative for facilitating the development of national guidelines for the accreditation of training and related experience. The American Council on Education's Project of Noncollegiate Instruction is already involved with criminal justice training programs in such a capacity, and further relationship seems justified.

In order to eliminate the need to resolve general accreditation issues at the local level, it is further recommended that the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, in cooperation with the American Council on Education, be considered as the authority to prepare national accreditation guidelines.

3. Internship Programs

It is recommended that national guidelines be established through the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences and/or an Advisory Board set up by LEAA for the operation of internship programs in all three sectors of the criminal justice system, taking into account both the college and agency perspectives.

Upon the issuance of such qualifying guidelines, it is further recommended that LEAA fund a program of university internships for the career recruitment of "promising" individuals into the criminal justice system.

It is also recommended that federal support be provided on a pilot basis within the three criminal justice sectors for full-time faculty supervisors to provide needed guidance of interns, facilitate effective learning of critical tasks, conduct internship "debriefing" seminars, and serve as career placement advisors.

4. Instructional Personnel

The shortage of faculty with the appropriate level and type of academic preparation, as well as a background of relevant criminal justice experience, is clearly demonstrated. Our recommendations for federal action on this problem appear in the next chapter.

5. Course Administration

It is recommended that LEAA establish a system for closer and more systematic evaluation of institutional commitment to criminal justice programs, emulating monitorship methods pursued by other professional programs, such as the health sciences and social work, in restricting the range of courses and curricula to be included in pursuit of the professional degree.

CHAPTER III

NOTES AND REFERENCES

1. Charles B. Saunders, Jr., Upgrading the American Police (The Brookings Institution, 1970), p. 16.

2. A. C. Germann, "Law Enforcement Education and Training in the United States," The Police Chief 24 (October 1957): 22-28.

3. National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement (Wickersham Commission), Report on the Police (U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931), p. 85.

4. Charles W. Tenney, "Higher Education in Criminal Justice: A Status Report" (U.S. Department of Justice, LEAA, 1971), p. 26.

5. Ibid., pp. 26-27.

6. Frank M. Boolsen, ed. "Directory of Universities and College Criminology Programs." Processed. (Society for the Advancement of Criminology, 1950).

7. Germann, pp. 22-28.

8. "Police Science Programs in American Universities--Colleges--Junior Colleges." The Police Chief 32 (May 1965): 32-42.

9. Richard W. Kobetz, Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice Education Directory 1975-76 (International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1975), p. 7.

10. See James D. Stinchcomb, Opportunities in Law Enforcement and Related Careers (Vocational Guidance Manuals, 1976), pp. 15-17; and Saunders, pp. 83-85.

11. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: The Police (U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 126.

12. National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, Police (U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973), p. 369.

13. Police Chief Executive Committee, The Police Chief Executive Report (International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1976), p. 25.

14. Thompson S. Crockett and James D. Stinchcomb, Guidelines for Law Enforcement Education Programs in Community and Junior Colleges (American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, 1968).

15. Law Enforcement Technology: A Suggested Two-Year Post-High School Curriculum U.S. Office of Education, 1975.

16. Tenney, pp. 12-31, 75.

17. James Price Foster, "A Descriptive Analysis of Crime-Related Programs in Higher Education" (Ph.D. dissertation, Florida State University, 1974), p. 118.

18. Joseph J. Senna, "Criminal Justice Higher Education--Its Growth and Directions," Crime and Delinquency (October 1974): 395.

19. Foster, p. 43.

20. Ronnie Dugger, "The Community College Comes of Age," Change (February 1976): 32-37.

21. Vincent O'Leary, "Higher Education in Corrections," Crime and Delinquency (January 1976): 59. See also Arthur F. Brandstatter and Larry T. Hoover, "Systematic Criminal Justice Education," Journal of Criminal Justice (Spring 1976): 47-55, for a plea for criminal justice education to focus on issues and problems and a value system based on strong liberal arts overtones.

22. Kuykendall and Hall suggest curriculum analysis through identification of four topics of courses--interdisciplinary, management, methods and law. To illustrate change in emphasis over time at one university, they found a healthy increase in interdisciplinary courses: 15 percent (1964), 40 percent (1975); and no change in management (14 percent), a sharp decline in the operational aspects of the criminal justice system (methods) 64 percent to 28 percent; and an increase (7 percent to 18 percent) in law. Jack L. Kuykendall and Armand P. Hernandez, "Undergraduate Justice System Education and Training at San Jose University: An Historical Perspective," Journal of Criminal Justice 3 (Summer 1975): 111-130.

23. Calvin J. Swank, "The Police in 1980: Hypothesis for the Future," Journal of Police Science and Administration 3 (1975): 300.

24. For a provocative article on the aims, objectives, and problems of graduate programs in a general university setting, having applicability to current and emergin programs in criminal justice, see David Riesman, "Thoughts on the Graduate Experience," Change (April 1976): 11-16.

25. Norval Morris and Gordon Hawkins, "The Honest Politican's Guide to Crime Control," Change (1969): 237.

26. Richard A. Myren, "Current Status of Academic Criminal Justice Programs," Report of the Standards Committee (Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, November 1972).

27. Burt Nanus, "A General Model for Criminal Justice Planning," Journal of Criminal Justice (Winter 1974): 345-356, suggest approaches for curriculum content development in the area of education and training of criminal justice planners.

28. U.S. Congress, Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (Public Law 93-415). 42 USC 5601, September 7, 1974, p. 1.

29. American Council on Education, and the University of the State of New York, A Guide to Educational Programs in Noncollegiate Organizations (American Council on Education, Project on Noncollegiate Sponsored Institutions, 1976).

30. The definitions of training and education are legion and universally debatable. One definition derived from an industrial orientation which was largely responsible originally for introducing a training need has overtones for trends in criminal justice:

> Traditionally, training was distinguished from education as a field which is concerned with teaching particular skills for a specific purpose; education on the other hand, involved the development of the whole person--socially, intellectually and physically. However the word training is gradually acquiring a broader meaning. Now it refers to activities ranging from the acquisition of simple motor skills to the development and change of complex socio-emotional attitudes. . . . Yet whatever name it is called the aegis of formal or informal programs. . . . its purpose is not only to promote the employee learning effort related skills, knowledge and attitudes but to increase an employee worth and serviceability to the (agency) as well as to themselves. [Bernard N. Bass and James A. Vaughn, Training in Industry: The Management of Learning (1966), p. 73].

31. George J. Beto and Robert March, "Problems in Development of an Undergraduate Criminal Justice Curriculum," Federal Probation (December 1974): 38-40.

32. Calvin J. Swank, "Criminal Justice Education: The Dilemma of Articulation," Journal of Criminal Justice 3 (Fall 1975): 217-222.

33. COPA

34. Dennis E. Hoffman, Joel E. Snell, and Vincent J. Webb, "Insiders and Outsiders in Criminal Justice Education," Journal of Criminal Justice (Spring 1976): 57-61.

CHAPTER IV. THE LAW ENFORCEMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM

During the eight years following its authorization by the Congress in June 1968 by the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act, the Law Enforcement Education Program (LEEP) is estimated to have provided financial assistance to a quarter of a million college students who were, or who were planning to become, employees of the criminal justice system. Total appropriations for the program by the end of fiscal year 1976 amounted to $234 million, approximately $940 per student assisted. This chapter summarizes the basic findings and recommendations of the National Manpower Survey's review of LEEP.

Section A provides an overview of the Law Enforcement Education Program, including a discussion of its objectives, its legislative and administrative history, and its current status.

The educational attainment of the employees of the criminal justice system has increased dramatically during the past 15 years. Section B outlines the dimensions of this trend and presents estimates of the contribution of LEEP to the surge in educational attainment at the college level since 1970.

Critics have charged that the quality of the education offered by many--but by no means all--criminal justice programs is in serious need of strengthening, and that strong measures are called for to restore confidence in the quality of the services in which so many federal dollars are being invested. Section C addresses this issue. Criteria for evaluating program quality are outlined, followed by an application of these criteria to the criminal justice education programs whose primary source of financing in recent years has been LEEP.

Section D considers the allocation of LEEP funds among LEAA regions, states, and institutions of higher education. This section also discusses the allocation of LEEP funds among criminal justice personnel in the various sectors of the system. Finally, Section E outlines the conclusions and recommendations of the National Manpower Survey's study of the Law Enforcement Education Program.

A. OVERVIEW OF THE LAW ENFORCEMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM

This section provides a general review of the essential characteristics of LEEP, beginning with a brief discussion of the objectives of the program, proceeding to a discussion of its legislative and administrative history, and concluding with a review of the current status of the program.

1. Objectives of the Program

The Law Enforcement Education Program was initiated on June 19, 1968, when President Johnson signed the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act. The most authoritative source of information on the objectives of a program is the legislation itself. Surprisingly, the only reference to the objectives of LEEP appearing in the Act is passing mention in Section 406 (a):

> . . . the Administration [LEAA] is authorized, after appropriate consultation with the Commissioner of Education, to carry out programs of academic educational assistance to improve and strengthen law enforcement. (Emphasis added).[1]

In the absence of a specific statement of the objectives of a program in the authorizing legislation, guidance must be sought from committee reports. The report by the Senate Committee on the Judiciary is relatively specific regarding the objectives of LEEP.

> The President's Commission on Law Enforcement recognized that the education and training needed for effective police work can best be acquired through college work. For this reason, it recommended that our goal be 2 years of college

> for officers and that a bachelor's degree be set as the standard for all major administrative and supervisory personnel.
>
> The amended bill takes a long stride toward the goal. . . . This will provide an opportunity for policemen and correctional personnel throughout the nation to improve their knowledge and skills, and should lead to greater public awareness of the policeman's task and increased respect for him and his job.
>
> The bill authorizes the Administration to establish a major program of educational assistance to institutions of higher education in subjects related to law enforcement.[2]

In sum, the objective of the Law Enforcement Education Program is relatively general, taking its meaning from the report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. Specifically, the objective is to increase the educational attainment of personnel of the law enforcement and corrections sectors at the college level.

2. Legislative and Administrative History

In 1967, law and order was the issue of the day. Crime first surfaced as a major policy issue during the presidential campaign of 1964, when the major emphasis was "crime in the streets." By 1967, the concern had broadened to include racial and political rioting and unrest. The Federal Government's initial response to the issue was the establishment of the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance in 1965 and the appointment in the same year of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice.

In 1967, legislation was introduced in the House by Congressman William Anderson, designed to improve the quality of law enforcement personnel. The strategy chosen was a program that would provide assistance in payment of the costs of higher education for personnel of the system rather than an approach that would have involved federal subsidization of pay incentives for highly qualified recruits and in-service personnel with higher levels of education. Thus the approach selected was an indirect one--subsidization of the costs of higher education. The acknowledged model was the National Defense Education Loan program.

Representatives of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, and the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences all advised that several hundred college programs in existence offered course work suitable for law enforcement personnel, and that students could be funded in those programs relatively inexpensively.

Congressman Anderson and other supporters of the legislation were concerned throughout the ensuing Congressional review of the proposal that it would not obtain sufficient support from police chiefs. Most of the chiefs with whom the Congressman and his aides discussed the issue emphasized their interest in ensuring that the education provided be clearly relevant to law enforcement functions.

The progress of the bill through Congress received powerful impetus from the fortuitous timing of the publication of the reports of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. The Commission was a strong proponent of education as a method of improving the effectiveness of the criminal justice system. One of its reports concludes, for example, that the "quality of police service will not improve until higher education requirements are established for its personnel."[3]

LEEP provides loans and grants to individuals. Loans (initially of up to $1,800 per year) are available to full-time students enrolled in programs directly related to law enforcement who are either preparing for employment in law enforcement or corrections or on academic leave from a law enforcement or corrections agency. The loans are to be cancelled in full at the rate of 25 percent for each complete year of subsequent service in the criminal justice system.

Grants are authorized exclusively for in-service personnel enrolled in a full-time or part-time degree program in an area related to law enforcement or suitable for law enforcement personnel. Before it was amended, the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act authorized the grantee to receive up to $200 per academic quarter or $300 per semester. The grantee is expected to remain in his or her agency for at least two years after the termination of the grant, or it must be repaid.

The 1968 Act has been amended by Public Law 91-644 (The Omnibus Crime Control Act of 1970) and by Public Law 93-83 (The Crime Control Act of 1973). The chief consequences of these revisions were to expand LEEP coverage to all criminal justice personnel, including teachers, and to increase the maximum loan and grant levels. The 1973 revision authorizes loans up to $2,200 per year and grants up to $250 per academic quarter, or $400 per semester.

The law states that LEEP loans may be offered for full-time study "directly related to law enforcement." The only guidance that the administrators had in defining directly related course work came from the suggestion of the President's Commission that the social sciences are relevant for criminal justice education. A sample list of 17 "directly related" courses drafted early in the program by LEEP officials includes 6 relating to law enforcement, 5 to corrections, and 4 to the social sciences.

The requirements for institutions offering grants are less stringent. The legislation provides that colleges and universities accepting LEEP funds for grants to in-service students are to have degree programs "related to law enforcement or [in] an area suitable for persons employed in law enforcement." The advisory panel and the first administrators interpreted these terms broadly to include accounting, business administration, economics, English, computer science, political science, government, history, urban planning, public administration, psychology, and sociology.

The distinction between "directly related" and "related" coursework led to a distinction between recipient schools. Some schools met the requirement of directly related course work and were eligible to award loans and grants. The other schools could only give grants and were therefore restricted to accepting part-time, in-service students.

Although Congressman Anderson was concerned about the distinction between "training" and "education" and intended that the LEEP legislation support education and not training, this stipulation does not appear in the legislation. The exclusion of "training" was, nevertheless, the early policy of LEEP. As the 1971 annual report of LEAA states,

> . . . ideally, criminal justice courses should teach broad principles and problem solving techniques. Academic courses should develop the student's powers of judgment as preparation for a variety of employment experiences. "How to" skills, on the other hand, will be learned on the job, or, sometimes, in recruit training.[4]

The distinction that the administrators intended to make is further clarified by reference to the aforementioned list of directly related courses. Courses on such matters as fingerprinting, police photography, self defense, patrol procedures, correctional procedures, and firearms are missing from the list.

It appears that the President's Commission was the source of the administration's requirement that courses be educational in nature. Although the Commission acknowledged the need for vocational training, it stated that "it is not and cannot be a substitute for a liberal arts education."[5] The Commission felt that college credit should not be given for technical training and that undergraduate programs should emphasize the social sciences and liberal arts.[6]

Although the 1968 Act mentions both pre-service and in-service personnel, it does not specify what proportion of funds should go to each group. Congressman Anderson was at least as interested in preservice students as in-service students, since his primary concern was to assist agencies with their recruitment efforts. The President's Commission likewise gave equal weight to increasing the qualifications of entrants and developing the abilities of in-service personnel.

In the first year of the program, LEEP officials decided that, since only $6.5 million was available, funding should be restricted to in-service personnel. However, after awards had been tentatively assigned it was found that the funds available would be undercommitted by more than $1 million. When the award letters were finally mailed, institutions were instructed to award 80 percent of the funds to in-service personnel and 20 percent to pre-service personnel.[7] In succeeding years until 1973 an 80/20 ratio was applied to in-service and pre-service students.

In 1973, LEAA established a list of priorities that had the effect of virtually cutting off funding for new pre-service students. The new system provided that students are to be funded in the following order:

- all returning LEEP recipients,
- new local or state criminal justice personnel on academic leave,
- other new state or local criminal justice personnel,
- criminal justice teachers,
- federal criminal justice personnel,

- new pre-service students, and
- criminal justice personnel working toward a law degree.

According to LEEP administrators, this decision did not represent a change in the program's objectives, but rather a pragmatic reaction to the fact that the demand for funds was growing while the level of funding was expected to remain constant at $40 million after 1973. Moreover, as the number of new applicants was increasing, so was the number of returning applicants. Full-time students generally continue to request funds, and four-year and part-time students may remain on the LEEP roster for up to eight years. By 1973, LEEP was faced with numerous applicants who had first received funding one to four years previously. The expansion of the occupations eligible for funding put further pressure on the limited resources.

After the effective elimination of new pre-service funding, the distinction between related and directly related course work was dropped. However, a similar distinction applying to majors rather than courses appears in the guidelines for academic year 1975-76. Any student who receives pre-service funding must be enrolled in a "crime-related degree program," as defined in the current guidelines. This includes majors that are crime-related and other majors that have criminal justice concentrations.

Although there is no current requirement regarding programs that are offered to the in-service students who constitute the bulk of LEEP-funded students and 100 percent of the new students, institutions are informally encouraged to develop crime-related programs.

As noted earlier, LEEP was initiated in fiscal year 1969 with an appropriation of $6.5 million. The funding was raised in fiscal 1970 to $18 million, in 1971 to $21 million, in 1972 to $29 million, and in 1973 to $40 million. Since then the appropriation has been maintained at the level of $40 million a year. Through the end of fiscal year 1976, appropriations for the program have totaled $234 million.

3. Current Status of the Program

This section provides summary details on the administration of the program at the present time and on the status of the legislation currently before the Congress.

LEEP is administered primarily by the regional offices of LEAA, under the general supervision of the Office of Criminal Justice Training and Education in Washington.[8] This method of administration was prompted by the philosophy of the "New Federalism" in the early 1970's.

The funding each year is allocated among LEAA regions, states, institutions, and students in the following general ways. The funds are allocated among the LEAA regions on the basis of a formula that gives equal weight to population and the number of criminal justice personnel in each region. The allocation of funds among the states varies depending upon the region. In some, the formula used to allocate among the regions is also applied to sub-allocate among the states. Other regions rely upon different methods. Within states, funds are allocated among institutions by the regional offices of LEAA in cooperation with the state planning agencies. Typically, the most emphasis is placed on the number of an institution's applicants for funding and on the geographic and population distribution within the region.

Funds are allocated to individual students by the educational institutions that have received grants from the regional offices of LEAA. Essentially, the process involves application by the individual student to an institution, which in turn submits the application to the regional office. In the end it is basically the individual institution that decides whether a student's application is funded. Whether this occurs or not is primarily determined by the priority ranking assigned to the application. At the present time, only in-service students are funded, and priority among them is given to those who have received LEEP assistance in the past. Since the program was inaugurated in 1969, aid has been provided to roughly 1,200 educational institutions and, as noted earlier, to approximately one quarter of a million students.

The President's budget for 1977 included an appropriation of $40 million for the transition quarter, July-September 1976 but did not provide for any funds for FY 1977. This amount would have been sufficient to finance the program at its present level during academic year 1976-77, but it would have required termination of LEEP at the end of the year.

However, the Congress voted, and the President signed, an appropriation of $40 million for the transition quarter and another $40 million for fiscal year 1977. With the transition-quarter appropriation to finance LEEP during the 1976-77 academic year, the fiscal 1977 appropriation will provide advance funding for academic year 1977-78.

B. IMPACT OF LEEP ON EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

This section provides a partial analysis of the quantitative impact of LEEP on the number of criminal justice system personnel who have completed work at the college level. As noted earlier, the primary objective of the program is to increase the number of individuals who have completed college work. The basic issue is whether LEEP has, in fact, resulted in a net increase in the number of employees of the criminal justice system who have completed college work since 1969.

Available Census data permit an analysis of trends in educational attainment for only "policemen and detectives." These however, were the primary target of the LEEP Program and as noted later in the chapter, the principal beneficiaries. Since 1960 (the period for which data are available for analysis), the educational attainment of criminal justice personnel has increased very rapidly. The hypothesis to be tested is that the rate of growth at the college level has been more rapid during the years LEEP has been in effect than it would have been had there been no program. Two analytical approaches are used to test this hypothesis. The first involves comparison of the actual growth in educational attainment during the period 1970-74 with a projection of the trend implicit in the actual experience during the 1960's. The second approach is an analysis of the rates at which college degrees were earned by two cohorts of personnel during two periods before and after LEEP was instituted.

1. Recent Trends in Educational Attainment

Table IV-1 presents Census data on recent trends in the educational attainment of sworn police officers, in state and local agencies, for the years 1960, 1970, and 1974. Over this period the proportion of police officers with less than a high school education declined from 37 percent in 1960 to 10 percent in 1974. The proportion of officers with no more than a high school diploma fluctuated somewhat over the period--in 1974 the proportion was roughly the same as in 1960: approximately 43 percent of all

TABLE IV-1

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF SWORN POLICE PERSONNEL, 1960-74

Educational Attainment	1960		1970		1974	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Totals	271,000	100.0%	392,000	100.0%	444,100	100.0%
Less Than High School	100,000	36.9	73,300	18.7	45,740	10.3
High School Graduate	116,300	42.9	193,600	49.4	193,180	43.5
College:						
Less Than 2 Years	27,100	10.0	67,400	17.2	70,170	15.8
2-3 Years	19,800	7.3	42,700	10.9	95,480	21.5
4 Years or More	7,300	2.7	14,500	3.7	39,520	8.9
Subtotal: Some College	54,200	20.0	124,600	31.8	205,170	46.2

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

Sources: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Criminal Justice Employee Characteristics Survey (1975); 1960 and 1970 Census of Population Public Use Sample tapes; U.S. Bureau of the Census, Census of Governments, 1972; Federal Bureau of Investigation, Uniform Crime Reports data tape.

personnel. At the same time, the proportion of police officers who had completed at least one year of college rose sharply, from 20 percent in 1960 to 46 percent in 1974. In absolute terms, the number of sworn officers who had completed a year or more of college virtually quadrupled between 1960 and 1974: from 54,000 to 205,000.

2. Estimation of the Net Impact of LEEP

The first approach used by NMS to estimate the net quantitative impact of LEEP on higher educational attainment among sworn police officers involves projection to 1974 of the trends in the number of individuals at each level of educational attainment that occurred during the years 1960 to 1970. Table IV-2 shows the results of these calculations.

The average annual rates of growth or decline during the 1960's are shown in the first column of Table IV-2. They show that the total number of sworn police personnel increased by 3.8 percent in each year during the period. Those with less than a high school diploma declined by an annual average of slightly more than 3 percent between 1960 and 1970. The number of high school graduates increased approximately 5 percent each year, and the number of sworn officers with some college education increased nearly 9 percent per year during the period.

The second column of Table IV-2 shows the NMS projections of the educational levels that would have been attained in 1974 had the trends of the 1960's continued.[9] The third column reproduces the last column of Table IV-1 for reference. The final column of Table IV-2 shows the differences between the projected and actual numbers of police personnel at each level of educational attainment. A negative sign in this column indicates that the actual growth in the category was less between 1970 and 1974 than was projected or that the decline in the number of individuals in that category was more rapid than projected on the basis of the experience of the 1960's. Thus, the fourth column of Table IV-2 shows that (1) the actual decline in the number of those without high school diplomas exceeded what would have been expected, (2) the rate of increase in the number of high school graduates was slower during the early 1970's than expected (there actually was a decline between 1970 and 1974), and (3) the number of individuals with less than two years of college education also increased less rapidly than would have been expected had the trend of the Sixties continued.

On the other hand, the number of individuals with two or more years of college increased significantly more rapidly than would have been expected

TABLE IV-2

THE EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF SWORN POLICE PERSONNEL IN 1974 COMPARED WITH THE ATTAINMENT THAT WOULD HAVE BEEN EXPECTED ON THE BASIS OF 1960-70 TRENDS

Educational Attainment	1960-70 Average Annual Growth Rate	1974		Actual Minus Projected
		Projected	Actual	
Totals	3.8%	444,100	444,100	0
Less Than High School	-3.1	60,400	45,740	-14,660
High School Graduate	5.2	221,200	193,180	-28,020
College:				
Less Than 2 Years	9.5	90,600	70,170	-20,430
2-3 Years	8.0	54,200	95,480	41,280
4 Years or More	7.1	17,800	39,520	21,720
Subtotal: Some College	8.7	162,600	205,170	42,570

Source: See Table IV-1.

on the basis of the trend of the 1960's. Indeed, nearly twice as many police officers had two or three years of college in 1970 than would have been expected, and the number with four years or more of college was more than twice as large as projected.

One apparent peculiarity of the results deserves comment. This is the fact that the number of individuals with less than two years of college increased less rapidly than would have been expected on the basis of the experience of the 1960's. The mechanics of LEEP may account for this. As noted earlier, the regulations of the program provide that those who have received

LEEP assistance receive first priority for refunding in subsequent years. This means that, once an individual has embarked upon a program of study in college, he or she is very likely to continue to receive LEEP funding. By 1973 the financial requirements of continued funding for individuals who were already enrolled in college programs had virtually exhausted the available appropriation. As a result, since 1973 very little LEEP money has been used to support students just beginning college work, and it may be presumed that most of the funds since then have been allocated to personnel with more than one year of college. This is quite consistent with the results of Table IV-2, which show a greatly accelerated rate of growth in the number of officers who have completed two or more years of college, and a decline in the rate of growth in the number of those who have completed only one year of college.

Although the above analysis would tend to support the hypothesis that LEEP significantly contributed to an increase in the number of college-educated police officers, the extent of the LEEP contribution cannot be directly assessed from the trends for two reasons. During the period 1970-74--a period of rapid expansion in police employment--the proportion of new entrants into police officer positions who had completed at least one year of college rose sharply, as compared with the preceding period. This is illustrated by the fact that among those employed in 1974, at the time of the Census survey, 39 percent of law enforcement officers who had entered between 1970 and 1974 had already completed at least one year of college prior to entry, as compared with only 23 percent of those who entered in the years 1965-69, and who were still employed in 1974. A rough estimate of the effect of the increased influx of personnel with some college education suggests that at least one-half of the greater-than-expected growth of police officers with some college education between 1970 and 1974, shown in Table IV-2, may be attributable to this factor. Secondly, the period 1970-74 was also marked by a very rapid expansion in veterans' readjustment benefits for education and training, from $1.4 billion in 1965-69 to $10.2 billion in 1970-74.[9] As indicated in Chapter II, the amount of such benefits paid to students enrolled in criminal justice programs substantially exceeded LEEP outlays during FY 1975. Thus, to the extent that federal financial assistance contributed to the overall improvement in educational attainment of police officers during this period, it must be attributed to the combined effect of both of these educational assistance programs.

Thus far, our analysis has been based on the growth in educational attainment of police officers, irrespective of whether this improvement resulted from increases in pre-service educational attainment or from participation in continuing education programs after entry into service. The Census Employee Characteristics Survey of 1974 also provides a measure of the extent to which police officers and other criminal justice employees attained college degrees following entry into service, since it included questions on degrees held at time of entry, as well as on additional degrees earned, and the year in which such degrees were achieved. Based on these responses, our analysis has been made of the rate of attainment of college degrees in the five year period following the period of entry into service for two cohorts of police officers: those who entered police employment during the years 1960-64, and those who entered in the years 1970-74.

The results of this analysis, presented in Table IV-3, indicate sharp increases in the proportion of police officers who attained college degrees, for the cohort which originally entered service during the years 1965-69, as compared with the group who entered in 1960-64, and were still employed in 1974. Thus, among those who originally entered in the years 1960-64, only

1.7 percent had earned associate degrees and 0.3 percent, bachelor degrees in the following five year period, 1965-69. In contrast, among those who entered between 1965-69, 8.3 percent earned associate degrees and 3.6 percent bachelor degrees in the years 1970-74. At the same time, the rate of degree achievement among those who originally entered between 1960-64, also increased sharply during the 1970-74 period, as compared with the preceding five years.

The results of a similar cohort analysis for custodial officers are presented in Table IV-4. The findings closely parallel those for police officers, indicating a very sharp increase in the proportion of custodial officers earning college degrees during the 1970-74 period.

Since a large proportion of all LEEP funds has been allocated to in-service personnel the above findings tend to reinforce those based on our trend analysis for police officers that LEEP, in combination with other educational assistance programs, such as veterans adjustment allowances, had contributed to the recent educational upgrading of criminal justice personnel.

The latter data are, however, also subject to potential bias. The cohort analyses of degree attainment were necessarily limited to those officers who were still employed in their agencies in 1974. Since attrition was higher to 1974, among those who were drawn from the earlier cohort, i.e., those entering between 1960-64, the educational experience of those still remaining in service in 1974 may not be representative of the entire group of employees who entered during this period.

The potential seriousness of this exclusion is illustrated by the data in Table IV-7, which shows the estimated total number of sworn law enforcement officers who were actually in service during the early years, in comparison with the number still in service in 1974 from each of the periods. Thus, based on these estimates, less than one half of all those who were in service in 1964 are included in the data derived from the 1974 Census survey, as compared with 70 percent of those who were in service in 1969.

The exclusion of those who left police employment prior to the 1974 survey would significantly bias the results only if employees who had separated were significantly different, in terms of their post-entry educational accomplishments than those who remained. Such a bias would exist, for example, if police officers who had earned college degrees were more likely to leave police employment than those who did not. Regrettably, evidence that would permit systematic evaluation of the possible effects of any such bias is not available.

Despite these reservations, the overall evidence available supports an inference that LEEP, in combination with veterans readjustment allowances, contributed significantly to the educational upgrading of police officers and other eligible criminal justice employees during the period 1970-74. However, for the reasons noted, it is not possible to isolate the separate impact of the LEEP program in any precise way.

TABLE IV-3

COLLEGE DEGREES EARNED BY TWO ENTRY COHORTS OF SWORN LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS DURING COMPARABLE PERIODS FOLLOWING THEIR ENTRY

Degrees Earned	Entrants in 1960-64 Who Earned Degrees During 1965-69		Entrants in 1960-64 Who Earned Degrees During 1970-74		Entrants in 1965-69 Who Earned Degrees During 1970-74	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total Entrants Still In Service in 1974	60,507	100.0%	60,507	100.0%	127,912	100.0%
Associate Degree	1,040	1.7	3,599	5.9	10,676	8.3
Bachelor Degree	170	.3	2,413	4.0	4,629	3.6
Master's Degree	24	*	349	.6	171	.1

*Less than 0.05 percent.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Criminal Justice Employee Characteristics Survey (1974).

TABLE IV-4

COLLEGE DEGREES EARNED BY TWO ENTRY COHORTS OF CUSTODIAL PERSONNEL IN CORRECTIONS DURING COMPARABLE PERIODS FOLLOWING THEIR ENTRY

Degrees Earned	Entrants in 1960-64 Who Earned Degrees During 1965-69		Entrants in 1960-64 Who Earned Degrees During 1970-74		Entrants in 1965-69 Who Earned Degrees During 1970-74	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total Entrants Still In Service In 1974	8,748	100.0	8,748	100.0	15,416	100.0
Associate Degree	35	.4	251	2.9	649	4.2
Bachelor's Degree	24	.3	53	.6	620	4.0
Master's Degree	22	.3	21	.2	178	1.2

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Criminal Justice Employee Characteristics Survey (1974).

TABLE IV-5

ESTIMATED ATTRITION FOR POLICE OFFICERS FOR SELECTED YEARS, 1959-1974

(thousands)

	1959	1964	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974[a]
Total Employment: Police Protection[b]	336.0	378.0	487.0	508.0	524.0	547.0	581.0	599.1[c]
Civilian Employees[d]	29.6	39.3	60.9	67.1	71.8	72.8	84.9	93.9[e]
Sworn Officers[f]	306.4	338.7	426.1	440.9	452.2	474.2	496.2	505.2
Sworn Officers Still In Service in October 1974[g]	100.2	161.8	290.8	328.6	362.2	401.5	455.5	505.2
Sworn Terminees: Cumulative to October 1974[h]	206.2	176.9	135.3	112.3	90.0	72.7	40.7	0
In Year[i]	5.9[j]	8.2[k]	23.0	22.3	17.3	32.6	40.7	0

[a] Census EC Survey data.

[b] Estimates of Governments Division, U.S. Bureau of the Census.

[c] Governments Division figure is 597 thousand.

[d] Estimated on basis of ratio in each year of civilian employees to total city police employees reported by the FBI's Uniform Crime Reports.

[e] Figure implied by 1974 UCR ratio is 90.5 thousand.

[f] Total Police Protection Employees less Civilian Employees.

[g] Census EC Survey data, distributing the non-respondents (1.2 percent of total) in the same proportions as respondents.

[h] Line 3 less line 4.

[i] Terminees between year indicated and October of the next year. That is, cumulative terminees shown for year less cumulative terminees shown for the next year.

[j] Average for each year 1959-64.

[k] Average for each year 1964-69.

Note: 1959 total Police Protection employment (full-time equivalent) estimated by extrapolation backward to 1959 of the growth rate from 1960-61. Total Police Protection employment in 1959 and 1960 estimated from Census full-time equivalent figures on basis of the ratio of total employment to full-time equivalent employment in 1962 (1.126). Total Police Protection employment in 1964 estimated using the mean (1.132) of the same ratio in 1962 and 1966 (1.138).

C. THE QUALITY OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

When the Law Enforcement Education Program was initiated, the decision was made to channel the funding through educational institutions rather than directly to the individual personnel of the criminal justice system. The latter approach could have been implemented either by direct grants or loans to the individuals concerned or by providing for administration of the program by criminal justice agencies.

Given the fact that the funding has been administered by educational institutions, there is assurance that the data base the National Manpower Survey has put together from the complete set of LEEP applications made available by LEAA is representative of the institutions involved in the program. This means that this section's appraisal of the quality of the criminal justice education programs sponsored by the LEEP-supported institutions is in fact a reasonably accurate characterization of the quality of the education provided to the individuals who have been the recipients of LEEP assistance.[10]

It should be noted that the approach necessitated by the data available is inferior to direct measurement of the quality of the education received by individuals themselves. Such direct measurement is exceedingly difficult even under the best of circumstances, and in the present case it is not a feasible alternative, for no information is available on the substantive educational attainment of the individuals who have been recipients of LEEP funding. Consequently, reliance must be placed upon indirect measurement of the quality of the education by examining various indicators of the quality of the criminal justice education programs of the institutions that are responsible for channeling LEEP funds to the individuals.

1. Criteria for Evaluating Program Quality

The objective of this section is an appraisal of the general quality of the criminal justice education provided by the institutions that are the conduit for LEEP funds to criminal justice personnel. For purposes of this evaluation, two general sets of standards are available. The first consists of the standards developed by those charged with administering LEEP; these appear in the LEEP guidelines. The second set of standards is that developed by the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences (ACJS) in the course of its efforts to develop a basis for the accreditation of institutions offering programs in criminal justice education. The ACJS accreditation guidelines have recently been published, although the effort to complete arrangements for the establishment of an accreditation process are still in progress. A detailed discussion of the activities of the ACJS in this area appears in Appendix E.

The two sets of standards, especially that prepared by the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, relate to a wide range of considerations associated with the quality of criminal justice programs. Some of the guidelines are quantitative in nature, and can easily be applied as criteria for evaluation of a program's quality. Others are more qualitative, and their use in evaluating a program would require the judgment of experts intimately familiar with an institution's program. The analysis undertaken in this section is limited to an appraisal of the extent to which LEEP-supported criminal justice programs satisfy the most important of the quantitative guidelines.

Four specific issues susceptible to quantitative analysis are considered in the following pages. The first is the general content of the criminal justice education programs; the second is the academic qualifications of the faculty members who are associated with the programs; the third is the part-time versus full-time status of the faculty members; and the fourth is the student-faculty ratio. The specific standards proposed by the two sets of guidelines, to which reference is made in the following discussion, are outlined in comparative format in Table IV-6.

2. Review of Program Quality

The following pages of this chapter provide a summary review of the information compiled by the National Manpower Survey with respect to the various criteria of educational program quality mentioned above. In each case the discussion of a particular issue is preceded by a brief summary of the LEEP and ACJS criteria.

The first general criterion for judging the quality of criminal justice education programs relates to the nature of the courses provided. The issue is whether the courses are training in nature or genuinely educational. The LEEP guideline is best expressed in the following quotation from LEAA's 1971 Annual Report:

> . . . criminal justice courses should teach broad principles and problem-solving techniques. Academic courses should develop the student's power of judgment. . . . "How to" skills, on the other hand, will be learned on the job or, sometimes, in recruit training.[11]

The ACJS guidelines specify that

> Basic agency skill training for criminal justice practitioners which is not designed to develop logical, analytical or cognitive skills or develop the reasoning capabilities of the student is clearly not a part of the academic collegiate degree program mission.[12]

Table IV-7 presents estimates of the proportions of criminal justice-related courses in selected fields offered by LEEP-funded institutions in academic year 1975-76 that can be characterized as training rather than education. The definition of "training" used for purposes of this analysis is an extremely conservative one.[13] The results of Table IV-7 indicate that in the aggregate approximately 15 percent of all criminal justice courses offered by LEEP-supported institutions can be classified as training. The proportion of law enforcement

TABLE IV-6

SELECTED LAW ENFORCEMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM GUIDELINES

Issue	Official Guidelines of the Law Enforcement Education Program	Accreditation Guidelines of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences
Content of Criminal Justice Programs		"Criminal Justice is a multidisciplinary body of scholarly research and knowedge in the social and behavioral sciences, jurisprudence, and the physical and natural sciences focusing upon the social problems of crime and delinquency and upon methods of managing these problems for the social good."
	"Criminal justice courses should teach broad principles and problem-solving techniques. Academic courses should develop the student's powers of judgment. . . . 'How to' skills, on the other hand, will be learned on the job or, sometimes, in recruit training."	"Basic agency skill training for criminal justice practitioners which is not designed to develop logical, analytical or cognitive skills or develop the reasoning capabilities of the student is clearly not a part of the academic degree program mission."
	"It is desirable that programs should be comprehensive and general at the lower (associate and baccalaureate) levels and became increasingly specific at progressively higher (master's and doctorate) levels."	
Academic Qualifications of Faculty Members	"It is preferable that faculty members possess at least a masters degree; some members should possess doctoral degrees."	A law or master's degree is the minimum academic qualification for all faculty members in associate and bachelor's degree programs. A majority of the faculty in baccalaureate programs and all faculty in graduate programs must hold an earned doctorate appropriate to their teaching and/or research areas.
Use of Part-time Faculty Members	"No crime-related degree program will be conducted with only part-time faculty members."	"There shall be at least one full-time faculty member or administrator whose primary responsibility is the administration and direction of the Criminal Justice program."
		Associate degree programs--no more than 50% of the courses may be taught by part-time faculty. Bachelor's programs--no more than 30%. Graduate programs--no more than 30%.
Student-faculty Ratio	"The ratio of full-time equivalent majors in crime-related studies to full-time equivalent faculty shall be no more than 60:1."	"In no case shall the ratio of full-time equivalent Criminal Justice teaching faculty and full-time equivalent students in the undergraduate program exceed 1:60 and in the graduate program 1:20."

Sources: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Guideline Manual: Law Enforcement Education Program, M 5200.1B (1975); Accreditation and Standards Committee, Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, Accreditation Guidelines for Postsecondary Criminal Justice Education Programs (1976); Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, LEAA: 3rd Annual Report for Fiscal Year 1971 (1971).

TABLE IV-7

CRIMINAL JUSTICE-RELATED COURSES THAT ARE TRAINING IN NATURE OFFERED BY LEEP-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS, BY FIELD EMPHASES OF THE COURSES, ACADEMIC YEAR 1975-76

Field Emphasis	All Courses Related to Criminal Justice[a]	Training-Type Courses[b]	Training Courses as Percentage of All Courses
Totals	14,640	2,132	14.6%
Law Enforcement	4,771	1,666	34.9
Corrections	1,267	123	9.7
Judicial Administration	109	12	11.0
Probation/Parole	210	7	3.3
Juvenile Justice	690	25	3.6
Security	195	25	12.8
Criminal Justice	1,912	220	11.5
Other	5,486	54	1.0

[a] Courses listed by LEEP institutions as directly related to criminal justice and that are identifiable as belonging to one of the field emphasis categories. Courses related to criminal justice but not exclusively related to one of the field emphases (e.g., criminal law) are classified under "other." Only courses whose titles or descriptions imply that a system-wide approach is taken are classified under the emphasis category "criminal justice."

[b] Each course was assigned an academic emphasis classification. Only courses that appeared to be unambiguously training in nature are listed in this category. Courses coded as training include: traffic control techniques, report writing, polygraph, defensive techniques, and correctional operations and procedures. Courses that may or may not be primarily skill training depending on how they are taught (e.g., techniques of criminal investigation and correctional custody) are excluded from this category.

Source: National Manpower Survey LEEP Forms Analysis (1976).

courses classifiable as training is the highest of all the particular subject matter areas: approximately 35 percent of these courses are better characterized as training than as education.

Table IV-9 displays a breakdown of the proportion of courses offered that are training in nature by the type of LEEP-funded institution. It is evident from this table that the highest proportion of course work of a training rather than educational nature is found in public two-year colleges, where nearly one out of every four courses is training in nature.[14] The proportions for courses in four-year colleges and universities are significantly lower; less than 1 in 10 of the courses offered by these types of institutions is training related. It appears, in summary, that the overall picture is one of predominantly educational courses, but that a significant number of courses, especially in the two-year public colleges, do not properly satisfy the criteria defined by LEEP and the ACJS guidelines.

The second criterion for appraising the quality of the criminal justice programs that have been supported by LEEP funding relates to the educational credentials of the full-time faculty members associated with those programs. The LEEP guidelines specify that "it is preferable that faculty members possess at least a master's degree; some members should possess doctoral degrees."[15] However, as noted in Table IV-6, the accreditation guidelines put forward by the ACJS specify that a law or master's degree is the minimum acceptable academic credential for all faculty members in associate and bachelor's degree programs, and that a doctorate is the minimum degree requirement for all faculty members teaching in graduate programs.

Table IV-9 shows a distribution of the full-time faculty members in the criminal justice programs of LEEP-supported institutions with respect to the proportion that have at least a master's degree. Of the approximately 2,900

TABLE IV-8

CRIMINAL JUSTICE-RELATED COURSES THAT ARE TRAINING IN NATURE OFFERED BY LEEP INSTITUTIONS, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION, ACADEMIC YEAR 1975-76

Type of Institution	Training Courses as Percentage of Totals
All LEEP-Supported Institutions	14.6
Public	16.6
Private	7.8
2-Year Colleges, Total	24.4
Public	24.7
Private	16.9
4-Year Colleges, Total	8.8
Public	8.8
Private	8.9
Universities, Total	8.5
Public	9.5
Private	5.7

Source: National Manpower Survey LEEP Forms Analysis (1976).

TABLE IV-9

FULL-TIME FACULTY MEMBERS WITH AT LEAST A MASTER'S DEGREE IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROGRAMS AT LEEP-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION, ACADEMIC YEAR 1975-76

Type of Institution	Full-Time Faculty Members		
	Total	With at Least A Master's Degree	Percent
All Institutions	2,897	2,562	88.4
Public	2,188	1,875	85.7
Private	709	687	96.9
2-Year Colleges, Total	838	573	68.4
Public	816	552	67.7
Private	22	21	95.5
4-Year Colleges, Total	500	476	95.2
Public	237	223	94.1
Private	263	253	96.2
Universities, Total	1,559	1,513	97.1
Public	1,135	1,100	96.9
Private	424	413	97.4

Source: NMS LEEP-Forms Analysis (1976).

full-time criminal justice faculty members in LEEP-supported institutions, approximately 88 percent hold an advanced degree. The situation is significantly better in the private institutions, where 97 percent have at least master's degrees, as compared with 86 percent in the public institutions. In general, the picture with respect to this criterion looks relatively good for all four-year colleges and universities, where the proportion of full-time faculty members with appropriate degree credentials ranges from 94 to 97 percent. The weakest of the educational institutions is the public two-year college, where only 68 percent of the full-time faculty members have at least a master's degree. The level of educational achievement of the full-time faculty members of private two-year colleges is comparable with that of the four-year colleges and universities. That is, 96 percent of their criminal justice faculties hold an advanced degree.

Data similar to those in Table IV-9 are presented in Table IV-10 for part-time faculty members. In general the incidence of advanced degrees among part-time faculty members is not as substantial as in the case of full-time faculty members. Of the 40,032 part-time criminal justice faculty members at LEEP-funded institutions in academic year 1975-76, 68 percent were reported to have at least a master's degree. Again, the programs of the public two-year colleges are the weakest. Somewhat more than half of the part-time

TABLE IV-10

PART-TIME CRIMINAL JUSTICE FACULTY MEMBERS WITH AT LEAST A MASTER'S DEGREE IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE AT LEEP-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION, ACADEMIC YEAR 1975-76

Type of Institution	Part-Time Faculty Members		
	Total	With at Least A Master's Degree	Percent
All Institutions	4,032	2,755	68.3%
Public	2,963	1,864	62.9
Private	1,069	891	83.4
2-Year Colleges, Total	2,134	1,202	56.3
Public	2,086	1,170	56.1
Private	48	32	66.7
4-Year Colleges, Total	587	497	84.7
Public	131	115	87.8
Private	456	382	83.8
Universities, Total	1,311	1,056	80.6
Public	746	579	77.6
Private	565	477	84.4

Source: National Manpower Survey LEEP-Forms Analysis (1976).

criminal justice faculty members at the two-year institutions have at least master's degrees, in comparison with more than 80 percent of the part-time faculty members of four-year colleges and universities.

Table IV-11 displays the relative incidence of advanced degrees among faculty members in all institutions of higher education in the United States in academic year 1972-73, compared with the incidence of similar credentials among all the faculty members of criminal justice programs in academic year 1975-76. The comparison highlights the clear inferiority of the quality of the criminal justice programs, although the discrepancy in the case of universities and four-year colleges is not as dramatic as in the case of the two-year colleges. In the aggregate, better than 9 out of 10 faculty members of all institutions have at least master's degrees. In the case of the criminal justice programs, the comparable figure is only slightly better than three out of four faculty members. The largest discrepancy is found again at the two-year college level, where 60 percent of the faculty members of criminal justice programs have master's degrees or better while 88 percent of the faculty members in all institutions have advanced degrees.

Another key criterion for judging the quality of an academic program is whether the program at a particular institution has at least one full-time faculty member. The LEEP guidelines specify that "no crime related degree program will be conducted with only part-time faculty members."[16]

Table IV-12 shows the number of LEEP-supported institutions with criminal justice programs that have at least one full-time faculty member by type of institution. The table shows that, in the aggregate, nearly three out of four institutions have programs that employ at least one full-time faculty member. The weakest type of institution is this case is the private two-year college, where only 4 out of 10 of the programs have at least one full-time faculty member.

TABLE IV-11

CRIMINAL JUSTICE FACULTY MEMBERS WITH AT LEAST A MASTER'S DEGREE AT LEEP-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS COMPARED WITH ALL FACULTY MEMBERS AT ALL INSTITUTIONS, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTIONS

Types of Institution	Faculty Members with At Least A Master's Degree As a Percentage of All Faculty Members	
	Criminal Justice Programs in 1975-76	All Institutions in 1972-73
All Institutions	76.7	92.6
Public	72.6	NA
Private	88.8	NA
2-Year Colleges, Total	59.7	87.7
Public	59.3	NA
Private	75.7	NA
4-Year Colleges, Total	89.5	95.3
Public	91.8	NA
Private	75.7	NA
Universities, Total	89.7	92.3
Public	89.3	NA
Private	90.0	NA

NA: Data not available.

Source: NMS LEEP Forms Analysis (1976); Alan E. Bayer, Teaching Faculty in Academe: 1972-73 (American Council on Education, 1973), p. 26.

It is interesting to note that the private four-year colleges also show poorly on this criterion; only 60 percent of their criminal justice programs have any full-time faculty members. This compares with 85 percent for public four-year colleges. Nearly three out of four of the public two-year college programs are staffed by at least one full-time faculty member. Close to 8 out of 10 of the programs of universities are staffed by at least one full-time faculty member. In summary, the picture with respect to the full-time faculty is bleakest for the private two-year and four-year colleges.

TABLE IV-12

LEEP-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS WITH CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROGRAMS THAT HAVE AT LEAST ONE FULL-TIME FACULTY MEMBER, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION, ACADEMIC YEAR 1975-76

Type of Institution	Number with Criminal Justice Programs	Number with at Least One Full-Time Faculty Member	Percentage With At Least One Full-Time Faculty Member
All Institutions	871	637	73.1%
Public	695	522	75.1
Private	176	115	65.3
2-Year Colleges, Total	454	324	71.4
Public	439	318	72.4
Private	15	6	40.0
4-Year Colleges, Total	162	112	69.1
Public	60	51	85.0
Private	102	61	59.8
Universities, Total	255	201	78.8
Public	196	153	78.1
Private	59	48	81.4

Source: National Manpower Survey LEEP Forms Analysis (1976).

The next criterion to be considered is the proportion of courses taught by full-time faculty members. The accreditation guidelines of the ACJS specify that (1) in associate-degree programs no more than 50 percent of the courses may be taught by part-time faculty, (2) in baccalaureate programs no more than 30 percent, and (3) in graduate programs no more than 25 percent of the courses may be taught by part-time faculty.[17] Data relating to the actual number of courses taught by part-time faculty members are not available. However, estimates of the proportions required to apply the ACJS criteria can be calculated from the numbers of full- and part-time faculty members on the reasonable assumption that each full-time faculty member teaches 2.5 times as many courses as each part-time faculty member. Table IV-13 shows the relative incidence of part-time and full-

TABLE IV-13

FULL-TIME AND PART-TIME FACULTY MEMBERS IN THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROGRAMS OF LEEP-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION, ACADEMIC YEAR 1975-76

Type of Institution	Status of Faculty Members				Proportion of Courses Taught by Full-Time Faculty Members[a]
	Total	Part-Time	Full-Time	Percent Full-Time	
All Institutions	6,929	4,032	2,897	41.8%	64%
Public	5,151	2,963	2,188	42.5	65
Private	1,778	1,069	709	39.9	63
2-Year Colleges, Total	2,972	2,134	838	28.2	50
Public	2,902	2,086	816	28.1	49
Private	70	48	22	31.4	53
4-Year Colleges, Total	1,087	587	500	46.0	68
Public	368	131	237	64.4	82
Private	719	456	263	36.5	59
Universities, Total	2,870	1,311	1,559	54.3	75
Public	1,881	746	1,135	60.3	79
Private	989	565	424	42.9	65

[a] Calculated on the assumption that each full-time faculty member teaches 2.5 times as many courses as each part-time faculty member.

Source: National Manpower Survey LEEP Forms Analysis (1976).

time faculty members at LEEP-supported institutions with criminal justice programs in academic year 1975-76 and the estimated proportions of courses taught by full-time faculty. In all institutions, the table shows that 42 percent of faculty members are full-time. As in most of the previous cases, the weakest faculties are found in public two-year colleges, where only 28 percent of the faculty members associated with criminal justice education programs are full-time.

Comparing the information in the last column of Table IV-13 with the criteria specified in the ACJS guidelines yields the following conclusions.

At two-year institutions the guidelines require that at least half the courses be taught by full-time faculty. Only the two-year public colleges fail to meet the criterion, and then only barely. At four-year colleges and universities the ACJS guidelines require that at least 70 percent of courses be taught by full-time faculty. The public institutions meet this standard, with 82 percent of courses at four-year colleges and 79 percent of courses at universities being taught by full-time faculty members in academic year 1975-76. The private colleges and universities fall short, however, with only 59 percent and 65 percent, respectively, of their courses being taught by full-time faculty members.

Table IV-16 displays the relative incidence of full-time faculty members at all institutions in the United States in academic year 1971-72 in comparison with the proportion of full-time faculty members in LEEP-funded criminal justice programs in academic year 1975-76. In all institutions more than three out of four faculty members are full-time. Among the criminal justice faculties of LEEP institutions, however, only 42 percent of the members are full-time. It is interesting to note that the proportion of full-time faculty members in both types of two-year colleges falls far short of the ratio in four-year colleges and universities. In all two-year institutions, only 61 percent of faculty members are full-time, compared with 79 percent of the faculties of four-year colleges and 82 percent of the faculties of universities. The discrepancies in the case of LEEP-assisted criminal justice programs are least serious among universities and about equally bad (the ratios are more than 32 percentage points lower) at the two- and four-year college levels.

The next criterion of educational quality to be considered is the student-faculty ratio. In this case, the LEEP and ACJS guidelines are essentially the same with respect to the undergraduate criminal justice programs on which this analysis is focusing. They both specify, in essence, that the ratio of full-time equivalent students enrolled in criminal justice degree programs to full-time

TABLE IV-14

RELATIVE INCIDENCE OF FULL-TIME FACULTY MEMBERS IN THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROGRAMS OF LEEP-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS COMPARED WITH ALL COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION

Type of Institution	Full-Time Faculty Members as a Percentage of all Faculty Members	
	CJ Faculties Of LEEP-Supported Institutions, 1975-76	All Institutions 1971-72
All Institutions	41.8%	75.6%
Public	42.5	77.4
Private	39.9	71.8
2-Year Colleges, Total	28.2	60.5
Public	28.1	60.2
Private	31.4	64.3
4-Year Colleges, Total	46.0	78.5
Public	64.4	84.3
Private	36.5	71.7
Universities, Total	54.3	81.8
Public	60.3	85.4
Private	42.9	72.8

Sources: National Manpower Survey LEEP Forms Analysis (1976); National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; Higher Education: Numbers of Employees in Institutions of Higher Education, Fall 1972 (1972); pp. 12-19.

equivalent teaching faculty should not exceed 60.[18] Unfortunately, the full-time equivalent concept is a matter of no little controversy. Moreover, the data available to the National Manpower Survey from the forms filed by institutions applying for LEEP funding are insufficient to permit the calculation of full-time equivalents, whatever definition might be preferred.

For this reason, the best that can be done with the data available is the calculation of a somewhat different ratio from that specified in the guidelines. Thus, the conceptual basis for Table IV-15 is the ratio of the total

TABLE IV-15

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE RATIOS OF ALL STUDENTS ENROLLED IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE DEGREE PROGRAMS TO FULL-TIME CRIMINAL JUSTICE FACULTY MEMBERS IN LEEP-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION, ACADEMIC YEAR 1975-76

Type of Institution	Total	No Full-Time Faculty	Student Faculty Ratio			
			Over 180	120-180	76-119	Under 76[a]
All Institutions	100.0%	31.2%	7.6%	8.3%	13.4%	39.5%
Public	100.0	27.2	8.8	10.3	14.8	38.8
Private	100.0	45.4	3.6	1.0	7.9	42.1
2-Year Colleges, Total	100.0	24.4	12.2	14.8	19.1	29.5
Public	100.0	22.7	12.7	15.4	19.4	29.8
Private	100.0	64.7	0	0	11.7	23.5
4-Year Colleges, Total	100.0	47.3	3.0	3.0	6.9	39.8
Public	100.0	43.2	1.1	5.7	5.3	44.6
Private	100.0	50.4	4.4	.9	8.2	36.1
Universities, Total	100.0	30.0	4.0	2.2	9.2	54.7
Public	100.0	29.4	4.3	2.4	10.2	53.8
Private	100.0	31.8	1.5	3.0	3.6	64.5

[a] Approximately equivalent to the LEEP and ACJS guidelines ratio of 60 for full-time equivalent students and full-time equivalent teaching faculty members.

Source: National Manpower Survey LEEP Forms Analysis (1976).

number of students enrolled in criminal justice programs to the total number of full-time criminal justice teaching faculty members.[19] The implications of using the ratio shown in Table IV-15 rather than that specified in the guidelines appears to be a moderate understatement of the extent to which LEEP-funded criminal justice programs actually satisfy the LEEP and ACJS standards.[20] Specifically, the ratio of 60 specified in the guidelines is roughly equivalent to a ratio of 75 calculated as in Table IV-15.

Given this caveat, Table IV-15 shows the distribution of each type of institution over ranges of student-faculty ratios. The final column of the table shows the proportion of each type of institution that satisfies the above-mentioned approximation of the LEEP and ACJS guidelines. In the aggregate, barely 40 percent of all programs meet the standard. In terms of this criterion, the programs of private universities are the most acceptable: 65 percent have appropriate student-faculty ratios. Fewer than one-quarter of the programs of private two-year colleges meet the standard, while only 3 out of 10 programs of public two-year colleges are acceptably staffed.

In summary, very little in the preceding pages is inconsistent with the oft-expressed view of critics of criminal justice education that many current programs fail to satisfy minimum standards of acceptability.

In spite of the explicit mandate of LEAA that training is not an appropriate use of LEEP funds, nearly 15 percent of all criminal justice-related courses offered by LEEP-supported institutions are better characterized as training than as education (see explanation in footnote 16). Nearly a quarter of the offerings of public two-year colleges are of this type. Among four-year colleges and universities, however, less than 9 percent of the courses are training. Although the present review addresses the issue of substantive curriculum content only with respect to the incidence of training courses, the NMS findings are consistent with the recent observation of a report by the American Bar Association regarding the curricula of criminal justice programs,

> . . . that many of them have a strong vocational orientation. . . . They do not meet the kinds of needs that have led to urging the police to undertake college work. At best, such programs constitute good training, at worst, they're lending status to an effort that serves only to reinforce the most parochial concepts prevalent in the police field.[21]

The sine qua non of an education program is its faculty, and the two most widely referenced measures of the quality of a program's faculty are the proportion of its members who are associated with the program on a full-time basis and the proportion who have at least a master's degree. On both counts the criminal justice programs at LEEP-supported institutions of every type fall short of the prevailing standards at the same type of institutions. The discrepancies are exceptionally large at the two-year college level.

At all colleges and universities better than three out of every four faculty members have full-time status. Only 42 percent of criminal justice faculties at LEEP institutions do. The discrepancy is largest at the two-year college level. Sixty-one percent of all faculty members at such colleges are full-time; only 28 percent of the criminal justice faculties at LEEP-supported two-year colleges are full-time. More than a quarter of LEEP-supported criminal justice programs do not have a single full-time faculty member.

While 93 percent of the faculties of all colleges and universities hold at least one degree beyond the baccalaureate, only 77 percent of the members of the faculties of LEEP-supported criminal justice programs hold at least one advanced degree. Although the discrepancies are not large (3-6 percentage points) at four-year colleges and universities, at the two-year college level the discrepancy is quite substantial--the proportions are 88 percent and 60 percent, respectively.

Finally, there is general agreement that a college program of acceptable quality must have a student-faculty ratio (expressed in full-time equivalent terms) no higher than 60. Only 40 percent of LEEP-supported criminal justice programs meet this standard, and at two-year colleges only 30 percent of the programs are minimally staffed.

The conclusion is that a significant proportion of the $234 million invested in LEEP over the past seven years has purchased education of questionable quality. The data cited in this review relate to the state of affairs in academic year 1975-76. There is every reason to believe that the quality of criminal justice education has improved significantly since LEEP was instituted. Nonetheless, the weaknesses of the field that remain after seven years of federal funding raise serious questions about the return that has been realized on the federal investment.

D. THE ALLOCATION OF PROGRAM FUNDING

Section B of this chapter outlines the general methods used to allocate LEEP funding among LEAA regions, states, and institutions. This section discusses the actual allocations of funding among regions, states, institutions, and criminal justice personnel.

1. The Allocation of Funding Among LEAA Regions and States

As noted earlier, the allocation of LEEP funds among LEAA regions is based upon the equally weighted distribution of criminal justice personnel and the populations of the states in each region. Within regions, however, the allocations are performed on the basis of the judgment of each region's administrators, although a number rely upon the same formula as is used to apportion the funds among the regions. Tables IV-16 and IV-17 array the actual allocation of LEEP funds in fiscal year 1975 against two comparative distributions. Table IV-16 shows the distribution of criminal justice personnel among the regions and states, and Table IV-17 shows the specific allocation of shares among the regions and states that is yielded by the application of the LEEP allocation formula in 1974. The tables together suggest that only relatively minor discrepancies exist between the distributions defined in the two tables and the actual allocation of LEEP funds in fiscal 1975.

TABLE IV-16

ALLOCATION OF LEEP FUNDS COMPARED WITH THE DISTRIBUTION OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM PERSONNEL, BY LEAA REGION AND STATE

LEAA Region and State	Allocation of LEEP Funds, Fiscal 1975	Criminal Justice Personnel, 1974
U.S. Total	100.0%	100.0%
Region I	7.4	5.5
Connecticut	1.3	1.3
Maine	.4	.4
Massachusetts	5.0	2.9
New Hampshire	.4	.3
Rhode Island	.3	.4
Vermont	.3	.2
Region II	15.3	17.5
New Jersey	3.7	4.4
New York	11.7	13.1
Puerto Rico	*	*
Virgin Islands	*	*
Region III	11.5	11.6
Delaware	.5	.4
District of Columbia	1.7	1.3
Maryland	2.4	2.3
Pennsylvania	5.2	5.3
Virginia	1.3	1.9
West Virginia	.3	.5
Region IV	14.4	13.3
Alabama	1.6	1.2
Florida	4.8	4.0
Georgia	2.0	1.9
Kentucky	1.5	1.0
Mississippi	.6	.7
North Carolina	1.7	2.1
South Carolina	1.0	1.0
Tennessee	1.2	1.5
Region V	18.0	19.4
Illinois	4.4	5.7
Indiana	1.8	1.8
Michigan	5.0	4.0
Minnesota	1.2	1.4
Ohio	4.0	4.5
Wisconsin	1.6	2.0

Continued

TABLE IV-16 (Continued)

LEAA Region and State	Allocation of LEEP Funds, Fiscal 1975	Criminal Justice Personnel, 1974
Region VI	9.6	8.2
Arkansas	.2	.6
Louisiana	1.2	1.8
New Mexico	.6	.5
Oklahoma	1.4	1.1
Texas	6.1	4.3
Region VII	5.0	4.6
Iowa	1.1	.9
Kansas	.9	1.0
Missouri	2.4	2.2
Nebraska	.7	.6
Region VIII	2.2	2.4
Colorado	.8	1.1
Montana	.3	.3
North Dakota	.1	.2
South Dakota	.4	.2
Utah	.5	.4
Wyoming	.1	.2
Region IX	12.2	14.4
Arizona	1.1	1.0
California	10.1	12.6
Hawaii	.6	.4
Nevada	.4	.4
Region X	4.8	3.1
Alaska	.1	.2
Idaho	.2	.3
Oregon	1.8	1.0
Washington	2.7	1.6

*Less than 0.05 percent.

Source: Office of Regional Operations, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, "Distribution of Law Enforcement Education Program Funds: Fiscal Year 1975," (1976) unpublished: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1974 Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics (1974).

TABLE IV-17

ALLOCATION OF LEEP FUNDS COMPARED WITH THE MEAN OF OVERALL POPULATION AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE PERSONNEL, BY LEAA REGION AND STATE

LEAA Region and State	Allocation of LEEP Funds, Fiscal 1975	Mean of Overall Population and Criminal Justice Personnel as a Percentage of the U. S. Total, 1974
U.S. Total	100.0	100.0
Region I	7.4	5.7
Connecticut	1.4	1.5
Maine	.4	.5
Massachusetts	5.0	2.7
New Hampshire	.4	.4
Rhode Island	.3	.4
Vermont	.3	.2
Region II	15.3	12.0
New Jersey	3.7	3.5
New York	11.7	8.6
Puerto Rico	*	*
Virgin Islands	*	*
Region III	11.5	11.3
Delaware	.5	.3
District of Columbia	1.7	.3
Maryland	2.4	1.9
Pennsylvania	5.2	5.6
Virginia	1.3	2.3
West Virginia	.3	.8
Region IV	14.4	16.3
Alabama	1.6	1.7
Florida	4.8	3.8
Georgia	2.0	2.3
Kentucky	1.5	1.6
Mississippi	.6	1.1
North Carolina	1.7	2.5
South Carolina	1.0	1.3
Tennessee	1.2	1.9
Region V	18.0	21.1
Illinois	4.4	5.3
Indiana	1.8	2.5
Michigan	5.0	4.3
Minnesota	1.2	1.9
Ohio	4.0	5.1
Wisconsin	1.6	2.2

TABLE IV-17 (Continued)

LEAA Region and State	Allocation of LEEP Funds, Fiscal 1975	Mean of Overall Population and Criminal Justice Personnel as a Percentage of the U.S. Total, 1974
Region VI	9.6	10.2
Arkansas	.2	1.0
Louisiana	1.2	1.8
New Mexico	.6	.5
Oklahoma	1.4	1.3
Texas	6.1	5.7
Region VII	5.1	5.4
Iowa	1.1	1.4
Kansas	.9	1.1
Missouri	2.4	2.3
Nebraska	.7	.7
Region VIII	2.2	2.9
Colorado	.8	1.2
Montana	.3	.4
North Dakota	.1	.3
South Dakota	.4	.3
Utah	.5	.5
Wyoming	.1	.2
Region IX	12.2	11.6
Arizona	1.1	1.0
California	10.1	9.9
Hawaii	.6	.4
Nevada	.4	.3
Region X	4.8	3.3
Alaska	.1	.2
Idaho	.2	.4
Oregon	1.8	1.1
Washington	2.7	1.6

*Less than 0.05 percent.

Source: Office of Regional Operations, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, "Distribution of Law Enforcement Education Program Funds: Fiscal Year 1975," (1976) unpublished; Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1974 Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics (1974); U. S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports (1975).

2. The Allocation of Funding Among Institutions and Students

Table IV-18 shows the distribution of LEEP-supported institutions by type in academic year 1976-76. The table shows that better than three out of four of the institutions receiving LEEP support are public, and that 46 percent of the institutions supported are two-year colleges, 22 percent are four-year colleges, and 31 percent are universities.

TABLE IV-18

DISTRIBUTION OF LEEP-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS,
BY TYPE, ACADEMIC YEAR 1975-76

Type of Institution	Number	Percent Distribution
All Institutions	1,024	100.0
Public	790	77.1
Private	234	22.9
2-Year Colleges, Total	475	46.4
Public	457	44.6
Private	18	1.8
4-Year Colleges, Total	229	22.4
Public	90	8.8
Private	139	13.6
Universities, Total	320	31.3
Public	243	23.7
Private	77	7.5

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

Source: NMS LEEP Forms Analysis (1976).

Table IV-19 shows the distribution of LEEP-funded students among the different types of institutions and the allocation of program funding on the same basis. Comparison of the distribution of students in this table with that of institutions in Table IV-18 shows that universities account for 41 percent of the students and only 31 percent of the institutions. Two-year colleges, on the other hand, account for 40 percent of the students and 46 percent of the institutions.

The distributions of students and LEEP funds shown in Table IV-19 differ in ways that clearly reflect relative tuition and fee levels among the different types of institutions. Private institutions, whose charges typically are significantly higher than public institutions, in every case receive substantially larger proportions of LEEP grants than their proportions of the students. In the aggregate, for example, one out of every five students receiving LEEP assistance is enrolled at a private college or university, but private institutions receive more than twice as large a proportion of the LEEP grants. Public universities, however, receive 33 percent of the LEEP funds to support 32 percent of the students, while public colleges receive significantly smaller proportions of the funding than their proportions of students.

3. The Allocation of LEEP Funds Among Criminal Justice Personnel[22]

Table IV-20 shows the distribution by sector of the criminal justice system personnel who reported in October 1974 that they had received LEEP support at some time since the inception of this program. The table shows that 81 percent of those who reported receiving LEEP support were employed in the law enforcement sector, as compared with 13 percent in correctional institutions and about 5 percent in probation and parole, or other agencies. Employees of state and local courts were excluded from the Census survey;

TABLE IV-19

DISTRIBUTION OF LEEP-FUNDED STUDENTS COMPARED WITH THE ALLOCATION OF LEEP FUNDS, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION, ACADEMIC YEAR 1974-75

Type of Institution	LEEP-Funded Students As a Percentage of the U.S. Total[a]	Allocation of LEEP Funds as a Percentage of the U.S. Total[b]
All Institutions	100.0	100.0
Public	80.3	59.0
Private	19.7	40.9
2-Year Colleges, Total	40.3	26.1
Public	39.5	20.7
Private	.8	5.4
4-Year Colleges, Total	18.4	21.9
Public	9.0	5.6
Private	9.4	16.3
Universities, Total	41.3	52.1
Public	31.8	32.8
Private	9.4	19.2

[a] Approximations based on institutions' requests for funding.

[b] Excluding allocations to five states (Illinois, Kentucky, New Jersey, South Carolina, and Puerto Rico) for which data by type of institution are not available.

Note: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

Source: NMS Analysis of LEEP institutional Applications (1975); Office of Regional Operations, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, "State LEEP Survey" (1976), unpublished.

TABLE IV-20

DISTRIBUTION BY SECTOR OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE
SYSTEM PERSONNEL WHO HAVE RECEIVED LEEP SUPPORT,
OCTOBER 1974

Sector	Percentage Distributions
Total	100.0%
Law Enforcement	81.4
Police	73.6
Sheriffs	7.8
Corrections	
Adult Corrections	8.6
Juvenile Corrections	2.9
Sheriffs' Jails	1.7
Probation/Parole	4.6
Prosecution	.7
Defense	.1

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Criminal Justice Employee Characteristics Survey (1975).

however, the number of such employees who received LEEP support can be assumed to be very small.

This distribution is, of course, affected by the relative number of employees in each sector, as well as by differences in LEEP participation among employees in each sector. Data on LEEP participation rates by sector, occupation and personal characteristics are presented in Tables IV-21 and IV-22. The major findings, based on these data, are summarized below.

- About 20 percent of all state and local employees of criminal justice

TABLE IV-21

INCIDENCE OF RECEIPT OF LEEP ASSISTANCE AMONG CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM PERSONNEL, BY SECTOR, OCTOBER 1974

Sector	Percentage of Incumbents
All Criminal Justice System Personnel	20.4
Law Enforcement	23.0
Police	23.6
Sheriffs	20.0
Corrections	14.2
Adult Corrections	14.0
Juvenile Corrections	14.2
Sheriffs' Jails	15.3
Probation and Parole	25.8
Others	3.5

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Criminal Justice Employee Characteristics Survey (1975).

TABLE IV-22

INCIDENCE OF RECEIPT OF LEEP ASSISTANCE AMONG CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM PERSONNEL, BY SECTOR, OCCUPATION, SEX, AND RACE, OCTOBER 1974

Occupational Category	Percentage of Incumbents Who Have Received LEEP Assistance						
	All Personnel	Sex		Race			
		Male	Female	White	Black	Spanish-American	Other
All Criminal Justice System Personnel	20.4	23.3	6.0	20.5	19.2	20.2	19.1
Law Enforcement, Total	23.0	25.9	4.1	23.1	21.6	23.4	22.1
Sworn	26.2	27.6	7.2[a]	26.1	27.4	29.5	26.0
Nonsworn	4.0	6.4	2.2	4.1	4.0	3.2	3.6
Corrections, Total	14.2	16.5	8.6	14.2	15.3	14.2	12.3
Adult Corrections: Custodial Guards and Supervisors	17.3	17.1	20.6	17.3	18.4	18.8	16.2
Juvenile Corrections: Custodial Guards and Supervisors	16.4	17.7	13.9	17.1	16.2	16.1	14.8
Sheriffs Jails: Custodial Guards and Supervisors	15.3	16.9	7.6	16.3	16.9	3.9	13.3
Probation and Parole Officers and Supervisors	27.3	28.8	23.5	28.2	31.6	14.0	22.4

[a] This figure probably underestimates the percentage of sworn female officers who have received LEEP assistance. A substantial number of school crossing guards and meter maids were coded by the Census Bureau as sworn personnel. If only women who are "sworn" according to the conventional definition were included, the percentage would probably have been somewhat higher, as non-sworn personnel are significantly less likely to be LEEP recipients than are sworn personnel. By the same logic, the proportion of female, non-sworn personnel shown in this table to have reported receiving LEEP assistance is probably overstated.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Criminal Justice Employee Characteristics Survey (1974).

agencies, covered by the Census survey in 1974, had received some LEEP assistance since initiation of this program.

- The proportions of LEEP recipients varied widely by agency category--from nearly 26 percent of probation and parole agency employees and nearly 24 percent of police employees to 14 percent of employees of correctional institutions. Only 3.5 percent of employees of other criminal justice agencies, such as prosecutor and public defender offices, reported any LEEP assistance.

- Comparisons of LEEP participation in the line criminal justice occupations (Table IV-22) indicate similar contrasts with police officers and probation and parole officers reporting much higher rates of use of LEEP assistance than custodial officers.

- The above differences can be explained, in part, by differences in the educational background of personnel in these occupations. LEEP assistance has been very largely concentrated among employees who have completed high school but who have not completed a four-year college program. In 1974, 81 percent of all sworn police officers were in this category, as compared with 74 percent of line correctional officers in adult institutions and 54 percent of child care workers in juvenile institutions. Moreover, it is probable that other factors have also contributed to the higher use of LEEP assistance by law enforcement officers, i.e., the much greater policy emphasis upon support of continuing education for line officers among law enforcement agencies than correctional institutions (as reviewed in Volumes II and III of this Report), and the fact that most criminal justice education programs have been heavily oriented to law enforcement subjects.

- Within each major occupation, the proportions of minority personnel--blacks and Spanish-Americans--who had participated in LEEP were very similar to those of other personnel in that occupation. (The only exceptions to this pattern, in the case of Spanish-American personnel employed as guards in jails and as probation/parole officers, may simply be due to sampling variability, in view of the small numbers of Spanish-American personnel in these categories in the Census survey.)

- Only 6 percent of all women employees had received any LEEP assistance as contrasted with 23.5 percent of all men employees. This difference is partly due to the large concentration of women employees in clerical and similar positions. However, comparisons of LEEP use in each of the major line occupations also indicate a general pattern of lower LEEP participation by women employees.

E. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The objective of the Law Enforcement Education Program is, in the words of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1969, "to improve and strengthen law enforcement" by raising educational attainment at the college level among the employees of the criminal justice system. The program pursues this objective by distributing federal money to colleges and universities, which then allocate the funds to students in the form of grants or forgivable loans for the payment of tuition and fees.

Two issues are central to an appraisal of the effectiveness of LEEP. One is explicit in the objective, the other is implicit. The first issue is the extent to which the program has actually raised the level of college attainment among the personnel of the system beyond what would have occured in its absence. The decade before LEEP was instituted saw major gains in the educational levels of the personnel of the criminal justice system. For example, the proportion of sworn police officers with one or more years of college education increased from 20 percent in 1960 to 32 percent in 1970. Moreover, there is some reason to believe that these trends would have continued to some extent without the enactment of LEEP.[23] The question is, therefore, whether LEEP has resulted in a net increase in college attainment over what would otherwide have occurred, or whether--to put it negatively--the LEEP funds merely paid tuition and fee costs that would have been met anyway from other sources.

The second issue is implicit in the program's objective. This is the question of the quality of the education that has been purchased by the federal investment of nearly a quarter of a billion dollars. Clearly, the objective of the program is an increase in college attainment because a good college education is presumed to impart knowledge, values, and abilities important to the improved performance of the criminal justice system. Thus an appraisal of LEEP must address the issue of quality as well as quantity.

1. Results of the Analysis

The results of the NMS analysis are consistent with an hypothesis that LEEP has helped to some extent to accelerate the trend toward a college-educated criminal justice system. However several factors jointly contributed to this need, including an increased inflow of better-educated entrants into police officer ranks during the 1970-74 period (partially due to LEEP pre-service funds being available from 1968 to 1971) and the very sharp growth in payments of readjustment benefits to Viet Nam veterans, including those majoring in criminal justice programs.

Some aspects of the quality of LEEP-assisted education can be assessed more directly. As a result of the design of the program, nearly all LEEP funds are allocated to the tuition support of students enrolled in criminal justice education programs. Critics of these programs, even prior to LEEP, have noted that many of these programs are staffed by faculty members with inadequate academic credentials, that many of their curricula are excessively oriented toward matters more appropriately handled in training courses, and that--among many other problems--the programs tend to receive inadequate support from the institutions with which they are affiliated.

The first two of these issues are addressed in detail in Section C of this chapter. The inescapable conclusion of the analysis is that the overall quality of many LEEP-funded criminal justice programs in academic year 1975-76 was disappointingly low. These results should not be interpreted as a blanket indictment--examples of high-quality programs are easily identifiable. Nonetheless, it does point up serious and widespread weaknesses, especially among the programs of two-year colleges, whether judged by criteria defined by LEEP administrators and the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences or by reference to the standards achieved by all colleges and universities in the nation as a group. At the very least, the findings raise questions about the wisdom of a continued federal investment on the order of $40 million per year unless it is accompanied by a more vigorous effort to enforce meaningful standards of program quality.

In part, although the issue is not discussed in this report, the weaknesses of criminal justice education programs are attributable to LEEP itself. No discipline could have sustained the quality of its academic offerings in the face of a quadrupling in the number of its academic programs in seven years without an enormous accompanying investment in graduate education to prepare the faculties necessary to staff the programs. Although a small proportion of LEEP funds has been allocated to graduate programs, the emphasis upon in-service students appears to have denied appropriate attention to the graduate level. In an important sense, therefore, the state of criminal justice education is a classic example of the consequences of a government program structured to have a major impact on the demand for a particular service without adequate consideration being given to the ability of the system to deliver the required supply.

2. Recommendations

The following recommendations are based on the preceding assessment of the qualitative limitations of the present LEEP-associated criminal justice education programs, and on assessments presented elsewhere in this report of current and prospective manpower needs of criminal justice agencies, which have implications for future periods for LEEP-assistance. Included among the latter are: (1) significant deficits in education and training among mid-level and managerial personnel in law enforcement and correctional agencies, which are being intensified by the growing need for more sophisticated managerial techniques, and (2) shortages of academically-qualified personnel for roles in criminal justice planning, research and evaluation, and for faculty in criminal justice education programs.

1. The NMS staff recommend that actions be initiated to enforce the qualitative standards for institutional qualification for LEEP assistance as provided in current LEAA guidelines. It is clear that these standards were not being consistently enforced by the LEAA regional offices. Programs which do not meet standards, with respect to the number of full-time and qualified faculty members, whose curricula do not meet minimum academic standards, or which are otherwise questionable in quality, should--after some reasonable notice--be disqualified from further LEEP assistance.

In order to promote establishment of reasonable quality standards for such purposes, LEAA should explore the potential for a cooperative role with the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, which is currently in the process of implementing its accreditation guideline.

One method of implementing such cooperation could involve the appointment of an Advisory Committee by ACJS to provide the desired linkage between LEEP and criminal justice higher education. The committee would work with program administrators in identifying the variables associated with educational quality. If such standards could be mutually agreed upon the Federal Government would not have to appear to be acting in the role of an accrediting body and could rely upon such a committee for monitoring compliance with these standards, if this is considered desirable. These actions should result in a systematic screening out of submarginal programs, which--in turn--would free LEEP funds for reallocation to higher priority educational assistance needs, as noted below.

2. Steps should be taken to earmark a portion of the LEEP appropriation for a special program of grants for undergraduate and graduate work in management-related areas. The grants should be made available to middle-level supervisors and management personnel in all sectors of the criminal justice system, including planners and court administrators. The programs should be administered directly by the Office of Criminal Justice Training and Education of LEAA. The grants should be awarded on a competitive basis analogous to programs operated by such other federal agencies as the National Science Foundation, with consideration given to a geographically equitable distribution. The grants should provide for payment of tuition, fees, and other expenses, including appropriate allowances for subsistence. Initially, these grants should be designed to support up to one year of full-time undergraduate or graduate work. The selection of personnel should give emphasis to those pursuing graduate programs, but law enforcement and corrections executive, in particular, who may not possess a baccalaureate degree should be permitted to benefit from the undergraduate management programs in order to accelerate such skill acquisition as well as to provide a basis for degree completion. The graduate program effort would be considered an enlargement and intensification of previous LEAA efforts in this area.

The rationale for this recommendation is straightforward. The proportion of college-educated personnel among line personnel in criminal justice agencies has increased rapidly during recent years, and the trend is likely to continue. The effect of the trend has resulted in an "inverted educational pyramid" in which many line personnel are as educated as, and in some cases more educated than, their supervisors and managers. As the years pass, the requirements for increasingly sophisticated management can be expected to continue to grow rapidly.[24] This is quite apart from the recognized need for better educated managers to deal with the complex technologies that have become available in recent years. The future will also require managers who are capable of dealing with the pressures for more competent evaluation of programs, and for implementation of new crime control or correctional strategies. This problem cannot afford to wait for more highly educated personnel to work up through the system. An immediate and direct approach is clearly called for.

3. A significant proportion of the LEEP budget should be earmarked for direct grants to criminal justice-related graduate programs to support increases in the number of graduate students planning to teach in the field.[25] The only long-run solution to the manifold problems of undergraduate criminal justice education is a significant increase in the supply of qualified instructors, and implementation of this recommendation would contribute significantly to this objective.

4. A program of special grants to support doctoral dissertations on criminal justice-related subjects should be instituted. Awards for this purpose should be made directly to applicants selected in a nation-wide competition by a special Advisory Board broadly representative of all relevant academic disciplines. As the objective of this competition should be to

maximize the quality of the individuals selected for awards, geography should play no part in the selection process. Again the analogy to the current dissertation-support programs of several other federal agencies is relevant. The competition should be open to graduate students in virtually any field, including public administration, economics, political science, sociology, psychology, urban and regional planning, and anthropology, as well as criminal justice.

This program would have two salutory consequences. First, it would contribute to growth in the supply of instructors in the criminal justice field at the graduate as well as the undergraduate level. Secondly, it would provide substantial support to an enhancement of the quality and quantity of scholarly research in a field that has not been noted for either aspect of its research effort. This program would be an expansion of previous LEAA efforts.

5. The NMS analysis of the allocation of LEEP funds among the sectors of the criminal justice system suggests that a significantly larger proportion of personnel in law enforcement (23 percent) have received LEEP assistance than in corrections (14 percent). This may be due, in part, to the fact that most criminal justice education programs have been clearly police-oriented, as well as to the lack of active support of such educational efforts by correctional agencies. Although earmarking of LEEP funds by sector would be unwise, efforts should be undertaken administratively to insure that all categories of eligible personnel in criminal justice agencies have equitable access to LEEP assistance.

6. It may be desirable to reassess the current policy which precludes authorization of LEEP grants for any new preservice students. It is clear that the overall adequacy of supply of applicants for line police and correctional priorities does not warrant a general re-opening of the LEEP program to all preservice personnel. The NMS analysis has indicated, however, that there is con-

siderable geographical variation in the preparations of line personnel with some college education. Moreover, veterans readjustment allowances--which have until now provided financial assistance to considerable numbers of pre-service, as well as in-service, students majoring in criminal justice--are scheduled to decline and eventually phase out. For these reasons, some discretion might be provided to regional offices to authorize a limited and selective use of LEEP assistance for preservice personnel, where state and local agencies can establish a need for such recruits and can provide some assurance of placement opportunities for these personnel, when they complete their education.

CHAPTER IV

NOTES AND REFERENCES

1. Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 (Public Law 90-351).

2. U.S. Senate, Committee on the Judiciary; *Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1967, Report*; Report No. 1097; 90 Cong. 2 Sess. (April 29, 1968), p. 36.

3. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: The Police* (1967), p. 126.

4. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, *LEAA: 3rd Annual Report for Fiscal Year 1971* (1971), p. 82.

5. *Police*, p. 127.

6. *Ibid.*, p. 218.

7. Theresa Jarboe and Harold Gamble, "Panel Review: Fiscal Year 1969 LEEP Applications," LEAA memo (February 3, 1969), unpublished.

8. Earlier the program was administered by the Office of Academic Assistance.

9. U.S. Department of Commerce, *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1975*, Table No. 548, p. 333.

10. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, *LEAA: 3rd Annual Report for Fiscal Year 1971* (1971, p. 82.

11. Accreditation and Standards Committee, Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, *Accreditation Guidelines for Postsecondary Criminal Justice Education Programs* (1976), p. 3.

12. The data are derived from a coding by the National Manpower Survey of the titles of courses listed in the LEEP-funding applications of the institutions. Courses are coded as training based on very narrowly defined critiera, and include such courses as traffic control techniques, report writing, polygraph, defensive techniques, and correctional operations and procedures. Courses that may or may not be primarily skill training depending upon how they are taught--for example, techniques of criminal investigation and correctional custody--are coded as educational rather than training courses.

13. This results is at least partially attributable to the vocational educational education mandate of many public two-year colleges, and the consequent commitment of such institutions to serving the immediate demands of the job market. Likewise, in-service and pre-service students do not necessarily take the same courses. In-service students would be exempt from many training courses, such as defensive tactics. Thus LEEP may not be funding some of the enrollments made up of pre-service career aspirants.

14. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Guideline Manual: Law Enforcement Education Program, M 5200.1B (1975), p. 5. The LEEP guidelines also emphasize the importance of "practical criminal justice experience," although such experience unaccompanied by appropriate academic credentials is considered inferior to academic credentials without experience (Ibid., p. 5).

15. LEAA, Guideline Manual, p. 6.

16. ACJC, Accreditation Guidelines, p. 5.

17. However, the ACJC guidelines are somewhat more specific than those of LEEP, in that they require an institution to use the same method for calculating the ratio for its criminal justice program as is used for all other departments in the insitution.

18. The data do not permit calculation of separate ratios for undergraduate and graduate programs. Although the number of students in each type of program is identified in the LEEP application, the faculty-member data cannot be disaggregated. It is interesting to note that the ratio that is the basis for Table IV-13 appears to be closely similar to that specified in a draft of the ACJS guidelines circulated earlier this year. The draft language is as follows: "in no case shall the ratio of full-time Criminal Justice teaching faculty and students in the undergraduate program exceed 1:60 and in the graduate program 1:20." [Accreditation and Standards Committee, Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, Accreditation Guidelines for Postsecondary Criminal Justice Education Programs (1976), processed, p. 12.] This is the only one of the draft ACJS guidelines that appears to have been changed in the final, published version. The only difference between the draft ACJS criterion and the ratios calculated for Table IV-13 is in the denominator, where the ACJS standard prescribes undergraduate enrollees and the NMS ratio uses total enrollees, graduate as well as undergraduate.

19. An average student-faculty ratio of 88 in academic year 1974-74, calculated as in Table IV-17 from LEEP-application data for a sample of 19 LEEP institutions visited by the staff of the National Manpower Survey, compares with an average full-time-equivalent ratio of 70 in the same academic year, calucalted from detailed data collected directly from the institutions. (The sample of 19 schools appears to be reasonably representative of the LEEP institutions referenced by Table IV-15. Each of the 19 institutions has at least one full-time faculty member, and the average student-faculty ratio for all LEEP institutions in academic year 1975-76, exclusive of those with no full-time faculty, was 90, only 2

percent higher than the average for the sample). This suggests that the ratios underlying Table IV-15 are approximately 26 percent higher than they would be if the data permitted their calculation on the basis of full-time equivalents, as the LEEP ACJS standards specify.

20. American Bar Association Project on Standards for Criminal Justice *The Urban Police Function* (1972), quoted by Larry T. Hoover, *Police Educational Characteristics and Curricula* (National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, LEAA, 1975), p. 35.

21. Strictly speaking, the issue addressed in this subsection is the allocation of LEEP funds among personnel only if every recipient of LEEP assistance had received the same amount. This is certainly not true, but no data are available regarding the amounts of assistance received by individuals. In the absence of evidence suggesting that there are significant discrepancies in the amounts of assistance received among different groups of employees (and the NMS is unaware of the existence of any such evidence), it seems reasonable to assume that the receipt of assistance is an appropriate proxy for the allocation of funds. In other words, if *x* percent of the personnel who reported receipt of LEEP assistance are in a particular sector, it seems reasonable to suppose that *x* percent of the program's funds were allocated to that sector.

22. Among these reasons is the fact that the rapid increase in the incidence of college education in the labor force as a whole that occurred during the 1960's accelerated the rate to 40 percent in 1974-75 [NMS estimates based on Current Population Survey data publishedin U.S. Department of Labor, *Manpower Report of the President* (various volumes)].

23. See Table V-18 in Volume II of this report.

24. A detailed analysis of this issue appears in Chapter V of this volume.

25. As discussed in Chapter II of this volume, funds are currently provided under LEAA's Educational Development Program to seven universities participating in the National Criminal Justice Educational Consortium for, among other purposes, support of work on doctoral dissertations.

CHAPTER V. MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND EDUCATION

The purpose of this chapter is to assess the current status of management training and education in law enforcement and corrections. The chapter describes management training and education needs expressed by executives in the National Manpower Survey. It identifies basic issues in determining training and education to meet these needs. Particular attention is given to the issue of collective bargaining. The chapter describes current management training and education programs in law enforcement and compares them with those of other public agencies and private business. Current business and public service literature was consulted for directions which law enforcement and corrections management training may follow to provide stronger programs.

A. THE CRITICAL ROLE OF MANAGEMENT

Law enforcement and corrections executives hold unique positions within the framework of private and public management. They must deal with many negative aspects of human relationships. They must enforce laws, provide for arrest and imprisonment. Through policies they or others promulgate, they must render decisions that may materially affect the courses of other individuals' lives.[1]

When the National Manpower Survey (NMS) asked executives to rank the goals of their departments, law enforcement executives ranked community satisfaction with the department first. Correctional executives surveyed in adult institutions gave top priority to inmate maintenance--housing, food, medical care. These executives appear to be most sensitive to the needs of citizens--whether free or under security. To meet these needs, they require staffs who can make wise decisions and exercise discretion in their contacts. They must administer and provide daily direction to such staffs, which absorb a major part of their operating budgets. A growing portion of these staffs, especially in line jobs, is under collective bargaining agreements which the executives must help to negotiate and, even more importantly, to administer. Executives are usually responsible to elected officials and new laws have placed their acts and decisions under increasing public scrutiny. They deal on the edge of unpopularity while being responsible for domestic tranquility, and they are measured, properly or not, by how well they maintain that tranquility. For the most part, they dwell in an authoritarian environment which ends quite abruptly outside their orbit or institutions. They must exercise their authority with an acute sensitivity for all the internal, as well as public, concerns and interests which now surround the criminal justice system.[2] The maintenance of their executive positions is often an exercise in survival. The management of a police force, a correctional institution, or a probation and parole activity requires an uncommon blending of experience, tact, specialized management skills, and leadership qualities. These traits must be heavily weighted toward understanding the vagaries of human behavior and toward the exercise of communication skills, for handling the difficult communication line, which reaches upward and downward with equal weight and peril.

B. MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND EDUCATION PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

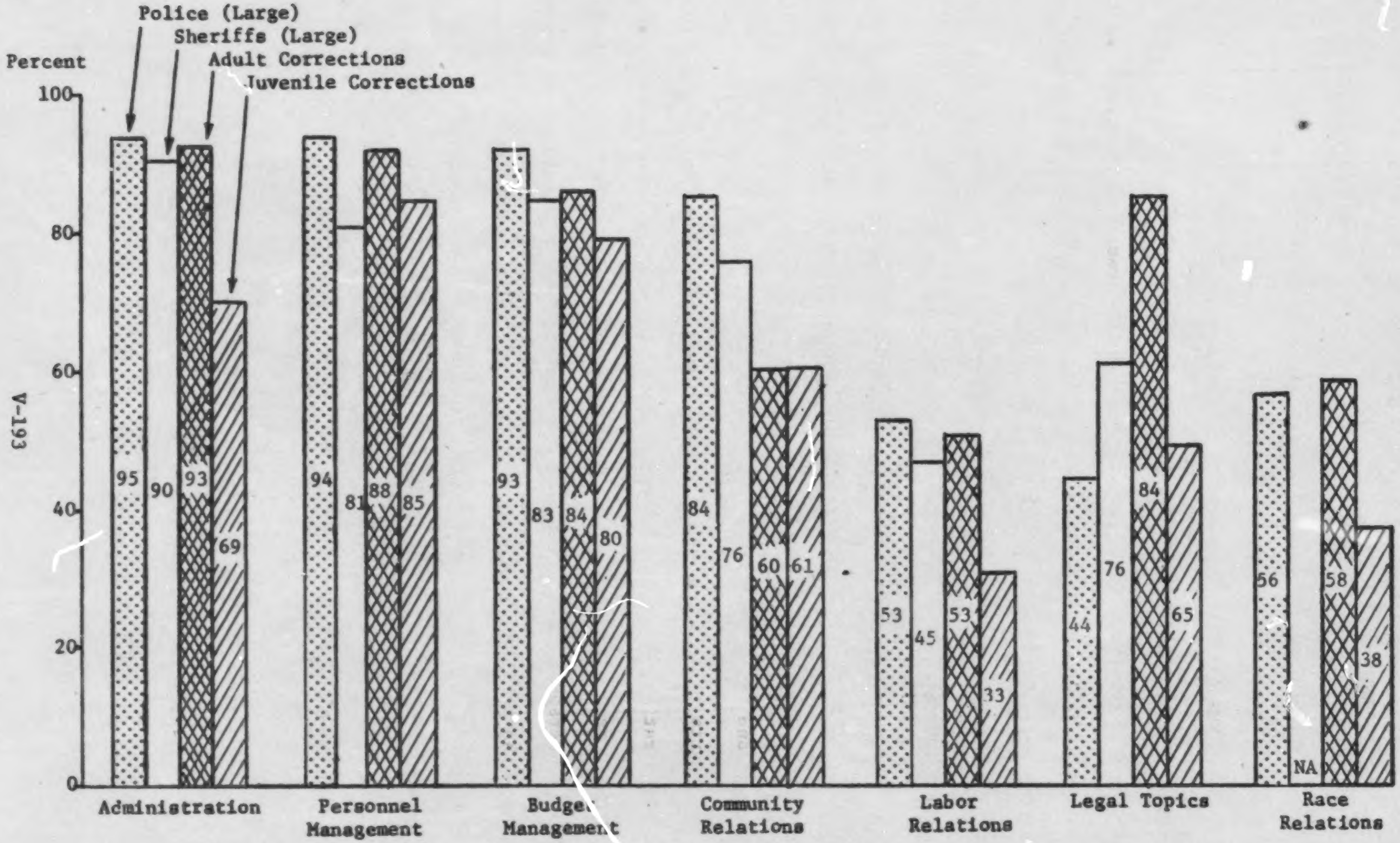
1. Functional Skills

The NMS assessed the need for management training and education in two ways. First, through mail surveys, it asked executives what types of courses they would recommend for their successors. The response is summarized in Chart V-1 for police chiefs, sheriffs, and adult and juvenile corrections administrators, in Chart V-2 for chief probation and parole officers. (Management education and training for court personnel was covered in Volume IV.) Second, through field interviews of middle managers and executives (Volume VIII), the NMS obtained information on problem areas in addition to those identified in the mail survey. These interviews were conducted in 10 states: Maryland, Illinois, New York, Massachusetts, Iowa, Florida, Colorado, Texas, Oregon, and California.

Charts V-1 and V-2 indicate that beyond the highest priority item--administration, which involves operations, leadership, and problem identification and resolution--executives are concerned about a wide range of functional areas. Personnel management is a dominant concern of criminal justice executives (Chart V-1). Community relations is a major concern to both groups, while the emphasis for law enforcement and executives, shown in Chart V-1, on personnel and budget management is supplanted by emphasis on community resource development and counseling program management for probation and parole, as seen in Chart V-2.

CHART V-1

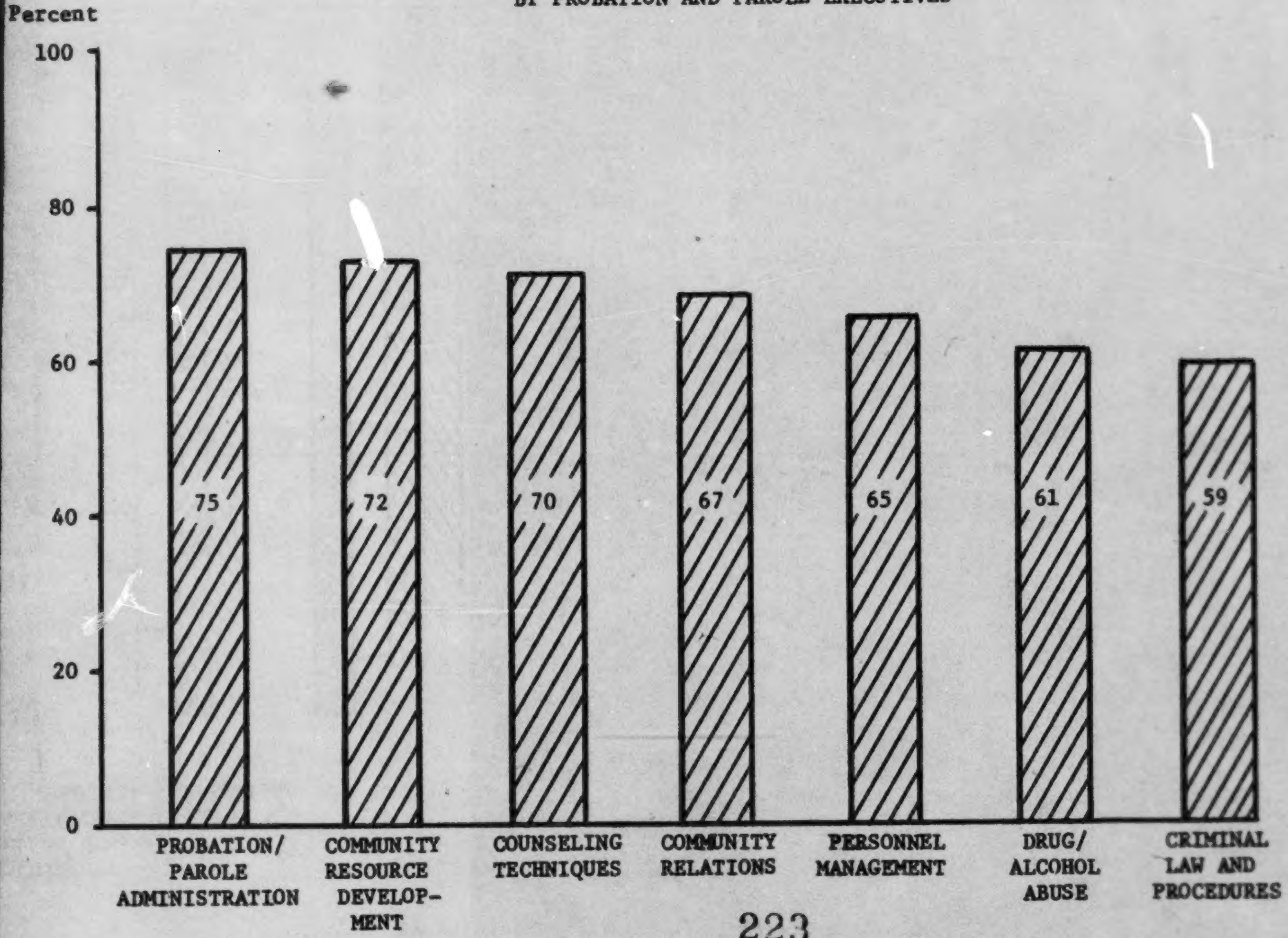
TRAINING COURSES RECOMMENDED BY CRIMINAL JUSTICE EXECUTIVES



Source: NMS Executive Surveys, 1975.

CHART V-2

TRAINING COURSES RECOMMENDED BY PROBATION AND PAROLE EXECUTIVES



Source: NMS Executive Surveys, 1975.

These responses suggest that executives place increasing emphasis on skills and knowledge of functional areas. In the past, problems of leadership have always loomed largest, especially in paramilitary criminal justice organizations, which tended to operate almost as separate entities within governmental organizations. Recently, however, state and local budgets have grown tighter. Larger jurisdictions especially have adopted program budgeting systems that demand uniformity of inputs for determining priorities and financial allocations. Program budgeting systems require a more sophisticated understanding of the procedures for budget development, presentation, and accountability. The NMS field interviews reflected growing concern for training in this area. The ability to develop a realistic budget and present it to a critical audience, interviewees felt, was directly related to how well they could compete with other governmental units for budget allocations.

Executives also expressed need for systems for managing their staffs under the terms of collective bargaining agreements. A second area of developing concern is community relations, which involve dealing with an ever-increasing number of interest groups with rising vocal and political powers. In addition, the growing number of laws concerning individual rights must be mastered and policies carefully promulgated to insure that community relations remain relatively untroubled and that the responses of the judicial system to actions taken, or procedures followed, are less critical. Thus, all levels of law enforcement executives find themselves in a management maze in which the need for more technical training is increasingly urgent.

2. Private and Public Approaches to Management Training and Education

Since criminal justice management training and education are relatively new, program development frequently leans heavily upon the course arrangements of business schools. The alternative is to strike out independently, choosing among tested business courses and translating them to criminal justice needs. There are some distinctions between private business objectives and those of public agencies; these should be understood in determining a proper course for criminal justice executives.

Peter Drucker points out that true management autonomy does not exist in criminal justice agencies.[3] Such agencies are usually characterized by a hierarchical control which comes down from elected officials, both executive and legislative. Under program budgeting procedures, these officials require that operations be conducted under a disciplined system of objectives and priorities. All along the line there is pressure for measuring program results--with a corresponding need to expand capabilities for audit, analysis, and performance measurement.

This trend emphasizes setting concrete standards for agency accomplishments, defining minimum acceptable results, setting deadlines, and making designated individuals accountable for obtaining results within the framework of laws, policies, and agreements shaped by elected officials.

Results from the NMS field interviews have underlined this trend. Executives expressed growing concern about the skills and knowledge needed to manage within the unique structures of the criminal justice system. Governors, mayors, county executives, councils, and legislatures are growing more concerned with program and performance budgeting, and there appears to be less acceptance of traditional approaches. There is a trend toward reviewing organizational objectives, eliminating those that are no longer serviceable or attainable, and setting new goals. Current pressures for reevaluating goals in the correctional system and its institutions reflect this trend.

Business school curricula reflect the concern of business management for improving profits and increasing market share. An objective of the criminal justice system is to move individuals who have broken laws through a variety of legal processes. This does not suggest, however, that the business experience and the analytical models used in management training cannot be applied to criminal justice.

3. Productivity and Performance Evaluation as a Training Objective

The NMS field surveys and observations of experts have shown that public officials are concerned about productivity in criminal justice activities, particularly in law enforcement.[4] Currently one of the most urgent requirements for management research is to find ways to measure productivity. Management is concerned with two types of productivity: (1) individual, which can be described and measured because it is discreet (such as patrol car time in responding to a call and resolving the problem); and (2) global--the output of the organization. Drucker points out that global productivity involves the organizational structure itself, the manager, idle or overload time in operations, the mix or balance of activities, and investment in talent.[5] A current example of the global approach to productivity measurement is found in a comprehensive study (1976) in the Montgomery County, Maryland, Police Department, based upon an evaluation of management by objectives.[6] This study examined the entire department, attempting to develop a comprehensive, performance- and productivity-oriented management system. It sought to increase productivity by a redefinition of jobs, a more stringent setting of goals without cost increases, and the introduction of a system for measuring productivity and performance.

The Police Foundation has also sponsored research into productivity and performance evaluation. This increasing concern suggests that management training and education programs should begin to address productivity and performance measurement as a management tool. Current studies can be utilized as the basis for timely laboratory learning efforts. If productivity measures were introduced into curriculum offerings of management programs, executives would not only learn about such measures but would also see the need, indicated in studies such as the one in Montgomery County, for total organizational change as the means for achieving performance objectives.[7]

4. Personnel Management and Collective Bargaining

Chart V-1 above showed that criminal justice executives strongly desired specialized training and education in personnel management. Since personnel often is the largest segment of their budgets, this need is understandable. Personnel management is directly related to departmental operational costs. The recent growth in collective bargaining agreements has intensified problems of personnel management. New labor agreements often necessitate restructuring portions, if not all, of personnel management systems. For this reason, collective bargaining has become a major management training and education concern.

This report will not undertake to treat collective bargaining as a separate issue since the NMS made no specific study of the process except to relate it to management training and educational requirements.[8] The concern here is with the impact of collective bargaining on the executive's need to determine how his personnel system should be structured and managed. This, in turn, suggests that training programs must address themselves to the tools needed in the negotiation process and in the process of managing an agency under negotiated agreements.

The NMS found that 50 percent of the large police agencies, 33 percent of the large sheriffs' organizations, and 28 and 31 percent of adult and juvenile corrections agencies, respectively, participated in collective bargaining. According to a report published by the International City Management Association, in 1976, 36 states provide for collective bargaining rights by public employees. In 29 of these states and the District of Columbia, police unions had formal recognition and collective bargaining rights.[9]

The collective bargaining process is another area in which there are differences between the public sector and private business approaches to management training needs. In the public sector, bargaining takes place within the political framework, with elected officials representing the public. These officials have a sensitive constituency whose lives are touched in a variety of personal ways by the criminal justice system. Moreover, negotiations in the public sector are multilateral. Not only are elected officials involved, but also appointed executives, such as the director of public safety, the director of corrections, chief of the civil service commission, the director of the budget, and the chief law enforcement officer or the correctional administrator. In a collective bargaining situation, some of those individuals, or their representatives, may sit as advisors to the negotiating team, or they may occupy positions on the team. All will be directly involved with prenegotiation strategies and the bargaining process itself. Thus, in addition to management objectives, criminal justice executives must know and understand the positions of the elected representatives who oversee their activities.

Another difference between public and private sector bargaining involves the applicable local, state, or federal statutes, which are much more specific for the public sector. These include laws concerning the extent to which bargaining is permitted, laws affecting hours of work and tours of duty, and civil service statutes regulating promotion and seniority, as well as statutes affecting such procedural matters as the budget cycle.[10]

The role of the executive in negotiations normally does not include membership on the bargaining team itself. His inputs are restricted to a great extent to the crucial prenegotiation sessions. During the actual negotiations, he acts as an advisor to the bargaining team. In both instances he must look ahead to the impact of negotiated agreements on the operational aspects of his mission, his budget, and his own managerial responsibilities.[11] A recent trend in labor-management agreements is for employees to have a greater role in management, including a voice in public policies and decisions covering promotion standards, the role of seniority, recruitment, job assignments, disciplinary procedures, and policies on allocation of manpower—e.g., number of shifts, squad car manning, and seniority in job assignments within a prison.[12] When proposed agreements involve such participation, the executive must project how the agreement might affect his ability to maintain acceptable levels of performance and productivity and to control management responsibilities. Correctional administrators are also increasingly concerned with dealing with inmate representatives. Likewise, officials must be concerned about employee unions when contracting for private services.[13]

The preparation required for prenegotiation strategies can be seen from the recent study (1976) on Police Unions by the International City Management Association. A formidable 15-item checklist is proposed as a basis for prenegotiation research.[14] These involve anticipating union demands and counterproposals, studying other contracts negotiated in jurisdictions with similar characteristics, being familiar with all legislation affecting collective bargaining and employee regulations, reviewing recommendations of supervisory officers, and compiling manpower statistics which may be pertinent to bargaining demands.

The number of agreements that an executive must consider can be quite large. A 1976 publication of the Department of Labor found 504 collective bargaining agrements covering 84,979 fire, police, and sheriffs' department employees, including clerical and support personnel.[15] Table V-1 shows the number of contracts in 238 state, county, and municipal governments in 32 states and the District of Columbia negotiated during 1972-73 and for most contracts expiring during 1974-77.

TABLE V-1

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AGREEMENTS AMONG POLICE AND FIREFIGHTERS

Activity	Agreements	Employees
Total	504	84,979
Firefighters	195	41,176
Police	254	33,488
Police and Firefighters	11	777
Sheriffs' Deputies	38	9,221
Citywide[a]	6	317

[a] For the purpose of this study, "citywide" agreements cover most or all municipal activities and specifically include police and fire protection. Employee coverage refers only to those in the protective services.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

An examination of these agreements indicates comprehensive coverage, with provisions affecting almost all phases of personnel management. Table V-2 lists specific areas covered by contracts with police [illegible] firefighters. In one area of particular interest for the NMS--training and education (under personnel policies)-- some 16 percent of these contracts included provisions

TABLE V-2

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AGREEMENT AREAS FOR POLICE AND FIREFIGHTERS

Administrative Provisions

- Recognition of employee organization
- Agreement approval
- Union security
- Dues checkoff
- Management rights
- Antidiscrimination clauses
- Residency requirement
- Political activities
- Union activity provisions

Hours, Overtime, and Outside Employment

- Scheduled weekly hours
- Reduction in hours
- Scheduled days of work
- Overtime pay
- Emergency overtime
- Call-in/call-back and standby pay
- Equal distribution of overtime
- Right to refuse overtime
- Overtime meal allowances
- Outside employment

Pension and Insurance Benefits

- Pensions
- Benefits at retirement
- Health benefit and life insurance plans
- Line-of-duty provisions
- Disability pay and retirement
- Survivors' benefits
- Liability protection

Grievances, Arbitration, and Discipline

- Scope of the grievance procedure
- Official time
- Grievance steps
- Arbitration
- Arbitration costs
- Time limits
- Disciplinary procedures
- No-strike procedures

Wage Provisions and Allowances

- Wage surveys
- Wage adjustment provisions
- Longevity pay
- Parity provisions
- Shift differentials
- Holiday premium pay
- Special duty and skill premiums
- Uniform allowances
- Automobile allowances

Paid and Unpaid Leave

- Voting time
- Jury time
- Police court time
- Holidays
- Vacations
- Paid personal leave
- Sick leave
- Sick leave conversion
- Funeral leave
- Military leave
- Rest periods
- Maternity leave of absence
- Personal leave of absence

Personnel Policies

- Probationary periods
- Selection of work assignments
- Trading shifts
- Manning
- Police and fire reserves
- Layoff and recall
- Training
- Education
- Promotions

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Collective bargaining Agreements for Police and Firefighters, 1976.

for job-related training. These agreements covered the type of training to be provided within the organization or at an educational institution, the number of training hours required, pay guarantees for class attendance, and travel expenses. In addition, 17 percent of the agreements provided for educational incentive pay to encourage employees to undertake professionally-related courses, and for pay increases after attainment of a job-related degree. Certain agreements called for increases in grade and pay for law enforcement officers who completed additional schooling. Fourteen percent of the agreements called for tuition for those attending school. Eleven percent provided for leaves of absence for educational purposes, with an employer option as to payment or nonpayment for sick leave. Table V-3 summarizes training and education provisions in contracts for police and fire personnel covered in the Department of Labor study.

While the proportion of agreements covering training and education is small compared to the more than 50 percent of the agreements that include such areas as wages and pensions, it does illustrate the growing complexity of the executives' tasks in collective bargaining. An increasing number of contracts negotiated after 1973 may be expected to have training and education provisions.

In summary, collective bargaining demands of those in management positions a wider training covering the growing intricacies in the procedures whereby agreements are reached. Such agreements affect not only the top executive but also middle management and supervisory staff, all of whom have some role in the negotiations and a stake in how the agreements are carried out. Table V-4 illustrates the principal areas of concern in the bargaining process for the three managerial-supervisory groups, and indicates techniques by which agreements are usually reached.

TABLE V-3

TRAINING AND EDUCATION PROVISIONS IN POLICE AND FIRE AGREEMENTS, 1972-73

	All Agreements		Job-Related Training		Tuition Aid		Education Incentive Pay		Educational Leave of Absence					
									Total		Paid		Unpaid	
	Agreements	Employees	Agreements	Employees	Agreements	Employees	Agreements	Employees	Agreements	Employees	Agreements	Employees	Agreements	Employees
Total	504	84,979	81	17,249	72	9,159	87	10,724	54	9,876	13	3,429	49	6,993
Firefighters	195	41,176	30	14,030	30	4,464	24	2,703	14	2,869	7	693	12	2,637
Police	254	33,488	45	3,030	39	4,635	56	6,176	25	2,603	4	1,000	24	1,688
Police and Fire	11	777	3	56	2	54	-	-	3	138	-	-	3	138
Sheriffs' Deputies	38	9,221	3	133	1	6	7	1,845	12	4,266	2	1,736	10	2,530
Citywide	6	317	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

NOTE: Nonadditive. Agreements may contain more than 1 provision.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Collective Bargaining Agreements for Police and Firefighters, 1976.

TABLE V-4

AREAS OF MANAGEMENT INTEREST IN THE COLLECTIVE BARGAINING PROCESS

	Top Management	Middle Management	Supervisory (First Line)
ORGANIZATION			
Understanding Statutory Regulations	X	X	X
Solicitation		X	X
Authorization	X	X	X
Petition for Recognition		X	
Unfair Labor Practices		x	x
RECOGNITION			
Card Check	X	X	
Unit Determination	X	X	
Elections	X	X	X
Certification	X		
Recognition			
NEGOTIATIONS			
Negotiation Team	X	X	X
Scope of Bargaining	X		
Management Rights	X	X	
Good Faith Bargaining	X	X	
Impasse	X	X	X
Impasse Resolution	X		
Contract Ratification		X	X
CONTRACT ADMINISTRATION			
Informing Management Staff and Employees	X	X	
Implementing Agreement	X	x	X
Grievance Procedure	X	X	X
Preparation for Next Negotiations	X	X	X
MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES			
Commitment on Part of Management	X	X	X
Interpersonal Communication	X	X	X
Group Decision Making	X	X	X
Management by Objectives	X	X	X
Organizational Development	X	X	X

Source: "Impact of Collective Bargaining on Law Enforcement and Corrections," Public Safety Research Institute Inc., 1976.

The NMS staff discussed methods for training criminal justice executives with trainers who supply specialized courses in collective bargaining and arbitration. Representatives of the American Arbitration Association advocated exposing executives to the types of "tough and threatening situations" that negotiators must confront through simulated or "moot" negotiations. Persons for whom this training would be appropriate include the representative of the chief law enforcement executive or the chief of corrections, the assistant attorney general or the municipal attorney, the financial expert or budget-programmer, and the personnel officer. Stress would be placed on covering such items as preparation for negotiations, how to negotiate an agreement, development of contract language, and methods for costing out the negotiated package.[16]

Preparation for the complexities of negotiation includes much more than an orientation exercise. A realization of the stress of the negotiating process and the knowledge and data required to hammer out reasonable agreements makes the need for more extensive and substantive training in collective bargaining apparent.

C. CONTENT OF MANAGEMENT EDUCATION AND TRAINING PROGRAMS

Two approaches to management training and education exist, and they are not mutually exclusive. One involves teaching the skills identified in recent research on "how managers manage." The other involves specific training or education to develop performance-based skills.

The first approach is derived from research into business experience. Criminal justice research in this area has been quite limited.[17] For this reason, a summary of some of the more recent findings is developed in this chapter as a guideline to course development. However, it would be inappropriate to dwell wholly on the functional needs of managers set forth in Figures V-1 and V-2, which summarize findings of the NMS field interviews, without also considering some of the leadership problems not covered in those interviews.

The first approach looks primarily at the entry preparation of managers. It concludes that:

> Formal management education programs typically emphasize the development of problem solving and decision-making skills, for instance, but give little attention to the development of skills required to find problems that need to be solved, to plan for the attainment of desired results or to carry out operating plans once they are made. Success in real life depends on how well a person is able to find and exploit the opportunities that are available to him, and, at the same time, discover and deal with potential serious problems before they become critical.[18]

This approach further shows that the gifted problem finders rarely possess outstanding scholastic records. The perceptual skills needed to identify problems are usually left to be developed on the job. The challenge for educators and trainers is to find ways to teach these perceptual skills in formal management education programs, even though the behavior needed to apply such techniques usually is developed through actual practice. An additional challenge to management education is to design programs that will permit each manager to develop his own managerial style within this framework of problem identification and solution.[19]

Those who select managerial candidates for mid-level management training or positions of management at the top often do so on the basis of individual outstanding performances, when the criterion should be ability to get maximum productivity out of others. Management education must teach managers how to look at their organizational environment and make evaluations as well as how to obtain voluntary cooperation from their force. Better performance and increased productivity begin at this point.

In recent literature the manager has been defined as a leader, a liaison agent, a monitor, a disseminator, a spokesman, a negotiator, a resource allocator, an entrepreneur, and a disturbance handler. In pursuit of these functions, he is found to need abilities relating to intuitive judgment and synthesis, rather than ability to articulate and perform logical analysis. Modern management schools often emphasize the latter, and their graduates often find their way into staff rather than management positions.

Thus, in addition to specialized courses that criminal justice managers say they need to carry out specific functions, such as collective bargaining and budget management, challenges for management training programs include teaching general managerial skills, especially for mid-level managers. According to the research, such managerial skills involve development of peer relationships, motivation of subordinates, resolution of conflicts, negotiation, allocation of resources, and decision-making under conditions of ambiguity and risk.[20] In this connection, a recent report, "Are Today's Schools Preparing for Tomorrow's Business Leaders," summarizes findings of a world-wide survey of chief executives conducted in 1974.[21] This survey, which was highly critical of the pre-service preparation of business leaders, suggests important areas for curriculum development for criminal justice training programs.

Business leaders in this survey concluded that school may not be the best place to develop leadership. Leadership was considered more a function of the individual's character and experience, best demonstrated in a work environment. However, the role of the university was considered to include development of what one leader identified as "abstract qualities in an individual's make-up." These qualities include balanced judgment, sensitivity to people, determination in a crisis, commitment to work, a "probing flexibility which generates, accepts, and exploits changes," and capacity for risk taking. Undoubtedly, these qualities are needed in law enforcement, corrections, and probation and parole executives. The report, by Michael Duerr, criticizes the quality of college faculty members:

> There appears to be a growing conflict between the increased sophistication and theoretical emphasis of academic institutions and the demand for pragmatic and realistic actions by managers. More and more college faculties. . . stress analysis of complex management systems and decisions with the tools of operations research, qualitative decision models. . . As a consequence, the young graduate is oriented toward executive level decision making and has a very poor grasp of the realities of the day-by-day problems faced by the typical manager.

Some of the executives surveyed, while deploring this overemphasis on theoretical education among young graduates, believe that the maturing executive needs continuing education in some of these management science areas to keep from growing obsolete.

Methods used for developing middle managers in businesses suggest similar approaches to in-service training of supervisors and mid-level managers in criminal justice. Business executives generally believe in progressive allocation of responsibility to prospective middle managers.

> Motivation by way of a high workload pressure has been successful, as it makes him feel that his ability and efforts are being recognized.[22]

Not unlike law enforcement executives, business executives believe in periodic changes in duties, with gradual assignment of greater responsibilities and heavy emphasis upon coaching and personal leadership by senior managers. Such in-house efforts are usually coupled with short courses developed jointly by the business firm and local educational institutions.

Business executives are giving increased attention to the need for skills that facilitate communication within organizations, delegation of authority, and participation in the management process. Most businesses, like criminal justice agencies, have a pyramidal or hierarchical organization structure. However, the report concludes that this structure may be subject to change and quotes one executive:

> The management style, or perhaps the management structure, of our company is being changed from the typical pyramidal structure to that of a wheel—in which individuals have greater autonomy, true decision-making opportunities, participation, and complete control over a segment of our operations. This appeals to the current generation of aspiring young managers, giving them a sense of belonging and accomplishment which the pyramid structure fails to do.[23]

This type of structure also seems appropriate for law enforcement and corrections agencies, in which the NMS found a growing number of college-educated staff members. Due to education and inclination, the new executive wishes to become more involved in his organization. Given opportunities to gain more experience in managerial duties, augmented by further study, these executives desire more challenging tasks, as do their counterparts in the business world.

The extension of such opportunities is becoming one of the most critical areas of personnel management. The growing generation gap illustrated in Volume II, Table V-9 indicates that there will be additional pressure for change. As the work force grows younger and more educated, the desire of executives for more challenge and responsibility will become acute. Retention of executives may depend upon how well managers plan to meet these needs. Such planning appears to be a critical problem in developing courses in personnel management.[24]

This brief summary of research findings related to preparation of executives indicates the need to reexamine management training. The points of view examined here emphasize nontraditional approaches to executive development. They also emphasize the need to develop leadership skills as well as specialized functional skills. One business representative who participated in the NMS management panel summarized his observations of criminal justice management as follows:

> The current criminal justice system environment - whether it be a police department, a correction institution, or even the judiciary - appears to have no stated philosophy that clearly articulates the role of management and the performance criteria for good managers. In such a vacuum, managers tend to be reactive and crisis management becomes typical. The idea of controlling, planning, and prioritizing the primary concerns of management - is lost in running from one crisis to another. When managers do the work, rather than orchestrate it, they do not understand their role.[24]

Since crisis is often the name of the game in criminal justice, the above view should be questioned to some extent. It is evident, however, that many executives in the field—especially those who have been exposed to college management programs and the younger executives who wish to develop their careers by effective handling of responsibility—feel this view merits serious consideration in building an effective management curriculum.

D. CURRICULUM CONSIDERATIONS

One of the consistent findings of the field job analysis interviews of executives conducted under the NMS was that on-the-job experience was the most common source of information about a job. However, many executives felt that special training would have been a more effective and efficient way to learn certain skills.[25] Table V-5 shows the judgments of middle level law enforcement officers regarding the best way to learn certain tasks. Their observations suggest several implications for management training and education efforts: first, experience on the job may not be the most effective way to pick up needed skills. In addition, providing no other training but trial and error learning often limits the full use of the mid-level executive in tasks the chief of the agency or institution

TABLE V-5

MIDDLE LEVEL LAW ENFORCEMENT MANAGERS JUDGMENTS ON BEST WAY TO LEARN CERTAIN CRITICAL TASKS

Tasks	Special Training	College Courses
1. Formulation of goals, objectives, policies to meet laws and community demands	X	X
2. Organization and staffing for best use of resources	X	X
3. Negotiation in collective bargaining	X	
4. Performance evaluation and policy review	X	X
5. Personnel management procedures	X	X
6. Statistical analysis of indices of effectiveness		X
7. Budget development, presentation, and management	X	X

Source: NMS Field Analysis Interviews (Volume VIII).

would like to see performed efficiently. Finally, courses available to criminal justice managers may be so traditional that they will not provide the skill training which the NMS indicates managers require.

Two basic problems for curriculum development are: what should be taught and where skill or knowledge can best be imparted—that is, in-house or through an outside institution. In regard to the first, the research described in Section D suggests that many criminal justice management courses do not include enough material related to problem finding, as against problem solving. There is also little attention to development of personal management styles, including management methods and the blending of intuitive and analytical management approaches..

One effort to develop a comprehensive leadership program is the Pennsylvania Police Executive Program (POLEX). This program recognized that the crux of the executives' function is to "initiate and react to unpatterned, unpredictable daily demands..."[27] The program provided a four-week course dealing primarily with the examination and modification of leadership traits. It was found that leadership traits could be modified and then reinforced to develop a stronger leadership potential. A study of the program concluded that such changed leadership qualities were maintained by course participants usually for more than a year-and-a-half after the course was completed.

In addition to leadership training, there is also a need to provide training in job-related skills. Courses listed by executives in the NMS and interviews cited above are illustrative of this need. Too often generic courses such as economics, cultural anthropology, or sociology are considered sufficient to meet the educational needs of criminal justice executives. Because they are already in place, and are traditional components of the curriculum, it is easy to include them. However, the NMS demonstrated a need for specific specialized skills: not just economics, but budget management; not psychology, but personnel management; not cultural anthropology and sociology, but minority group relations and techniques for establishing effective community relations.

The field interviews also revealed that adult and juvenile community-based correctional administrators felt a stronger need for management training and education than did other criminal justice executives. While their basic concerns tended to coincide with law enforcement and institutional corrections administrators, their additional needs were clearly job-related. These included training in contract negotiations, not only with employee unions, but also with public and private agencies for personnel and other services. Other concerns were community resource development techniques; staff training and performance management; quantitative and qualitative program evaluation techniques; internal auditing and accounting systems; the handling of boards, committees, and judicial processings; and systems for establishing cooperative arrangements with other criminal justice agencies--parole, police, and courts--in the use of resources and the management of offenders. These will be discussed more fully in Volume VIII.

Already noted business objections to highly theoretical courses taught through sophisticated methodologies underline the desirability of teaching specific specialized skills in a "hands-on" learning atmosphere. This could include a laboratory approach, simulating the environment in which the executive or middle level manager may be working. The discussion of collective bargaining provided an example of the differing and complex skills and information that management personnel need. The American Arbitration Association recommends teaching such skills in a simulated and very stressful environment. At a meeting of the American Society for

Public Administration in April 1976, the criminal justice panel, which was composed of representatives of both employees and management, differed widely on many issues, but unanimously agreed that the development of collective bargaining skills by management and by employee representatives is urgently needed. At this meeting, the correctional union representative further advocated intensive joint union-management training sessions that would develop negotiating and bargaining skills by simulating the actual negotiating process.[28]

In addition to what should be taught, another major consideration for curriculum organization is whether skill and knowledge can best be imparted in-house or through an outside institution. Several ways of approaching this question have been suggested:

- An inventory of training and education resources can be used to determine what courses are available at local, regional, and national levels. While the NMS did not make such an inventory, it did examine baccalaureate and graduate school catalogs offering courses in criminal justice. They are listed in Appendix F. Specific training and educational programs in the functional areas identified by executives in the NMS were noticably absent, except for courses in administration. (This does not mean that a criminal justice department or program had not arranged with some other department to provide courses in some of the critical areas.) The findings suggest that criminal justice programs tend to be general and not specifically oriented to the needs of criminal justice executives. On the other hand, many universities provide special programs or institutes intended to augment their general program, and some of these covered subjects that the NMS identified as urgently needed.

Current examples of university programs and cooperative efforts include the criminal justice offerings of the Wharton School of the University of Pennsylvania, the University of Southern California, the State University of New York at Albany, California State University at Long Beach, the Southern Police Institute at the University of Louisville, John Jay College, Babson College (New England Institute of Law Enforcement), and the Traffic Management Institute of Northwestern University. Various national institutes and programs, such as those available through the FBI (National Executive Institute) and IACP, complement the efforts of academic institutions.[29]

The Senior Command College at Bramshill, England, is a leadership training program conducted by a foreign government which has been a model for some American training efforts. The program offers opportunities for accelerated promotion through examination and impartial selection, and rewards its most qualified graduates with scholarships to many universities, including Oxford and Cambridge.

The limited NMS observation of college catalogs indicates program offerings vary widely. While the criminal justice executive needs expressed in the survey may fully justify special course offerings, available programs tend to follow traditional curriculum offerings, reflecting their business school origins.

- The second approach to deciding where criminal justice courses should be taught would be to determine the desirable length and content of program offerings. Appendices G, H, and I outline executive training programs of federal agencies. Two other programs (Appendices J and K), sponsored by the National Institute of Corrections with LEAA funding, could also serve as models for content and length. These programs cover leadership development, problem identification, and problem solving, with hands-on skill and knowledge acquisition in some of the areas identified as executive needs in the NMS and field visits. The new FBI National Executive Institute offers a program of four separate cycles, each four days' long (Thursday through Sunday) to accommodate busy police executives. It also requires independent research and study.

Some business programs suggest other approaches. A program for IBM executives provides four levels of management and executive training.[30] The initial level is 5-day school for first line new managers, to be attended 30 days after appointment. The participants return 1 to 1 1/2 years later and every 3 years thereafter for further training. The second level is a 1-week school for middle managers who have taken on the responsibility for managing managers. The third level consists of an advanced 3-week management program for incumbents of high level executive positions.

In the IBM program, the first level school uses internal staff for teaching basic managerial skills. Schools at the higher levels deal with broad issues external to the organization and use visiting faculty.

IBM does not base raises in pay or new job assignments simply on educational credentials. It is interested in performance of assigned tasks and potential ability to assume more responsible positions. Educational credentials are indicative, but not a prerequisite to success.

The IBM program is based on the theory that in the relationship between the business and educational community, it is more cost-effective to use existing competence, particularly the high educational competence in the universities. It also recognizes external degrees, equivalence examinations, and work experience credits.

- The discussion of IBM suggests a third approach, to help executives acquire university degrees by providing academic credit for management training. Earlier in this volume, reference was made to the generation gap in educational levels of law enforcement executives. Chart V-3 illustrates this gap, which suggests that degree programs need not require executives to take criminal justice courses with content they already know, or participate in highly theoretical courses having little or no relationship to their daily problems. Programs incorporating job-related requirements of executives could be tied to flexible undergraduate or graduate degree programs offering equivalence examinations and work experience credits. For those executives who are college graduates, any additional degree work might emphasize management skills rather than work in the technical areas of specialization represented by their previous degrees.

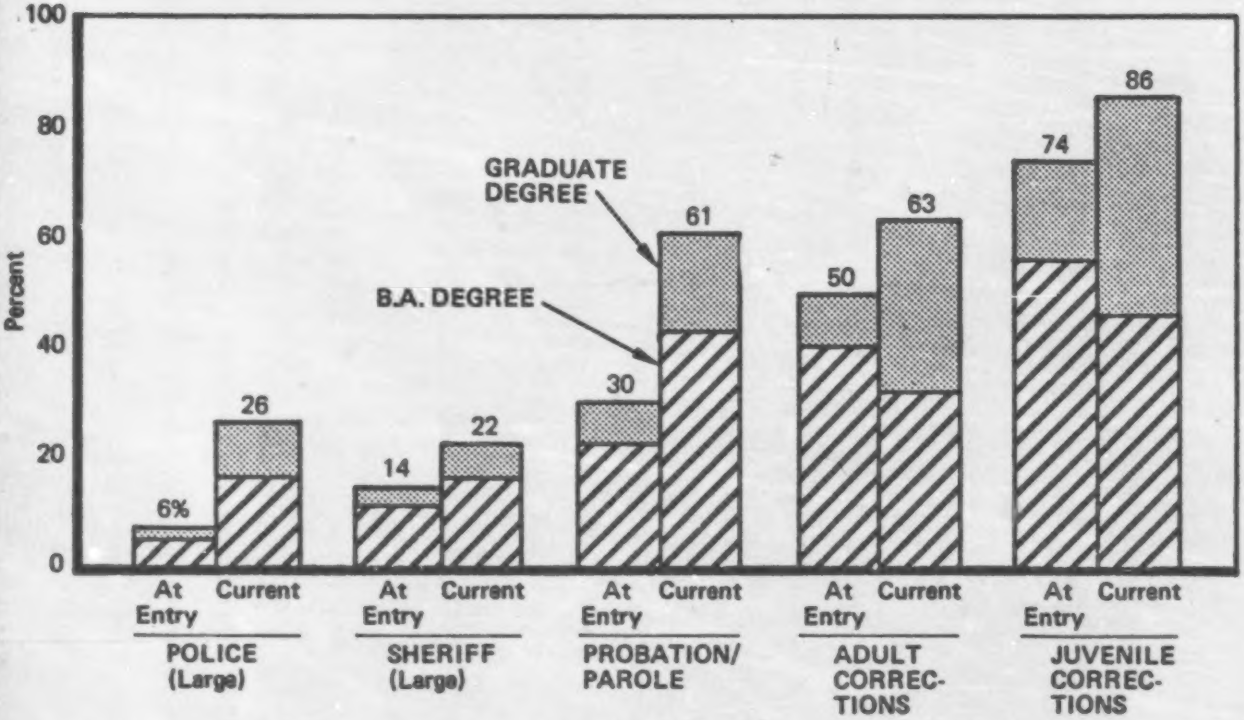
Universities might also consider awarding credits for institute and other in-service programs not necessarily university-sponsored. This practice is pursued by some universities, but could be further encouraged for executive development programs.

- A fourth approach to curriculum development recognizes the time limits of busy executives. The NMS revealed that this problem was probably the greatest single deterrent to introducing in-service training programs. With time at a premium, the number of courses and programs available at various times throughout the year and the length of such offerings become distinct factors in providing adequate coverage.

The NMS did not attempt to determine optimum or desirable course lengths for executive training. A review of programs sponsored by business firms for their employees indicated that such programs vary in length. In-house or institute courses normally average about five days.[31] Public agency courses, CHART V-3.

PERCENT OF LAW ENFORCEMENT AND CORRECTIONS EXECUTIVES WITH COLLEGE DEGREES

CURRENT ATTAINMENT vs. EDUCATIONAL ENTRY



Source: NMS Executive Surveys, 1975.

such as the Senior Executive Program of the U.S. Civil Service Commission, extend up to 7 weeks (Appendix H), and the Wharton School course for Correction Executives covers 10 days (Appendix J). College institute programs for business executives range from 3 weeks to 14 weeks, with the average 6 weeks. The FBI Executive Institute four-cycle program has been previously mentioned.

To address the array of courses found desirable by managers in the NMS and field interviews would require a series of courses on specific subjects, or, better, a cluster of related subjects that could be handled in limited sessions.

For a middle manager or a new executive, a substantial program covering all major management skills required before assuming a new position, would appear to merit considerable investment of time and money. It would be desirable that job-related skills be developed as early in an executive's career as possible, permitting skill attainment in advance of need rather than hurried exposure to subject matter when the need has become critical.

- A fifth guideline for determining where courses should be given involves making related course offerings for supervisors, mid-level managers, and top executives available at one center for all three groups. Table V-6 indicates a simple hierarchy of possible course offerings drawn from public and private management training and education sources. First and second line supervisors are included. The NMS training panelists vigorously recommended that management programs be vertically arranged, with continuity from first line supervisors through top managers, so that in larger agencies there would be some similar threads of content extending through all levels of management training and education. Such training and education might improve the general management of the organization. Including representatives

TABLE V-6

ILLUSTRATIVE MODEL OF SUPERVISORY AND EXECUTIVE MANAGEMENT PROGRAMS FOR MANAGEMENT ACTIVITY

	Course	Scope
REGULAR PROGRAM	Supervisory Management (First Line)	The demands of a supervisor, the skills and tools needed to manage
	Managing Managers (Second Line)	Managing supervisors, developing skills of supervisors, working in a supervisory environment, human relations
	Advanced Management (Mid-level managers)	Developing specific conceptional skills and specific tools for specific problem areas. A synthesis of pertinent techniques
	Senior Executives Management Program	Problem solving programs, developing needed tools, group approaches to solving each other's problems--practical approaches to crisis management
SPECIAL PROGRAMS	Dynamics of Employee Behavior (geared to mid- and senior executives)	Handling of human resources, team building, career development, collective bargaining
	Personnel Assessment (geared to mid- and senior executives)	Location of "fast track" candidates, determining abilities for specific jobs, performance evaluation, objective promotion, training and education related to needs and career objectives
	Emerging Trends in Executive Management	Keeping up with new techniques and tools--what's new in management
	Crisis Management (example of specialized courses as needed)	Approaches to practical operating problems calling for a high order of decision making
	Course lengths may vary	

of all levels of management could foster interaction among them and overcome the junior supervisors' or middle managers' frequent complaint that the "top boss ought to have taken the courses I am taking."

- Curriculum development should not neglect the totality of tasks performed by the executive. Up to this point this chapter has emphasized course needs reflected in the executive questionnaire responses, individual field interviews, and business-related research. Volume VIII of this study presents an occupational analysis of several key criminal justice executive positions, which provides a comprehensive listing of the task, skill, and knowledge requirements for these positions. The analyses of the law enforcement executive and the juvenile community-based administrator positions provide an opportunity for looking at total needs in designing career development courses for managers. The NMS has already suggested some of the more urgent training needs for certain of the tasks. However, if career courses of several months, perhaps, were contemplated, the whole spectrum of executive needs might be addressed. For example, the law enforcement executive presentations in Tables III-49 and III-50 of Volume III could provide a model of the ground work for structuring such comprehensive management training and education programs (See Appendix L for Ford Motor Company approach).

E. QUANTITATIVE FACTORS IN PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT FOR MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND EDUCATION

There are about 50,000 managers in law enforcement, corrections, probation, and parole--the groups discussed in this chapter. Approximately 7,300 of these are in state agencies, 9,000 in counties, and 32,300 in cities of varying size. Table V shows categories of manager by type of jurisdiction. Their needs, naturally, vary by jurisdiction and size of agency.

TABLE V-7

MANAGEMENT PERSONNEL BY JURISDICTION

Category	Total	By Jurisdiction		
		State	County	City
Police (Sworn)	35,814	3,723	901	31,190
Sheriffs (Sworn)	6,383	—	6,163	220
Sheriffs (Jail)	640	—	568	72
Corrections	5,481	3,132	1,627	722
Probation/Parole	1,305	450	664	191
TOTAL	49,623			

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Census of Employee Characteristics Survey, 1974.

Table IV-8 shows the distribution of law enforcement managers in cities, by size of agency.

TABLE V-8

PERCENT OF LAW ENFORCEMENT MANAGERS BY SIZE OF AGENCY

Size of Agency	Percent of Managers
1,000 or more employees	19.6
400 - 999	7.0
150 - 399	9.0
75 - 149	9.2
25 - 74	18.1
10 - 24	13.0
1 - 9	24.1

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Census of Employee Characteristics Survey, 1974.

With approximately 20 percent of the law enforcement executives concentrated in agencies of 1,000 or more employees, where management problems are most crucial, this group becomes the first target for more management training and education. The 16 percent in agencies with 150 to 999 employees merit almost equal priority. On the other hand, the approximately 24 percent in the 1-9 employee group, where duties are mostly operational, have limited management responsibilities. For the 30 percent who manage 10 to 149 employees, management training needs may be quite different than for the larger groups. In short, curriculums might need to recognize diverse training demands for the four groups. Opportunities should also be provided for law enforcement officers in small jurisdictions to obtain the training needed to advance to larger jurisdictions.

Earlier in this chapter, note was made of the recommendation of the NMS panel of experts that, whenever possible, supervisory and management training should be related to mid- and upper-level executives. This view is well expressed by Bass and Vaughn in their study, Training in Industry:

> Ideally the attitudes and actions of higher level management need to be consistent with the course content of the supervisory training program. Top management needs exposure to the program and its objectives, so that it will actively support them as well as reinforce what is learned in the training program.[32]

Such an approach should contribute to greater agency or institutional unity. It should also form the basis for a better program for supervisory and manager development, since a common skill and knowledge base will be equally shared by all within the management structure.

The sizable pool of managers and supervisors suggests that the education and training need for this group and its successors is quite large. If the number of managers in law enforcement and corrections is compared with the size of the organizations they manage, the need for management training becomes astonishingly impressive. Expenditures for law enforcement exceeded $7 billion in 1974, with $3 billion spent to maintain correctional activities.[33] While the sizes of the jurisdictions in which these expenditures took place varied greatly, the total influence of all the managers in these operations is quite apparent. The efficiency and effectiveness with which they carry out their responsibilities affects rather markedly both the public purse and the public welfare. The NMS review of the management training programs of 19 leading business establishments indicates that business considers executive development a "bottom-line" effort. Their training investments are directly related to such pay-off areas as increased efficiency and cost reduction, enhancement of profits, financial management, community relations, product acceptance and a better share of the market, and employee relations. Considering the annual public investment in the law enforcement and correctional systems, criminal justice executives may well merit such bottom-line attention.

F. QUALITATIVE FACTORS IN MANAGEMENT TRAINING AND EDUCATION

1. Quality of Management Training Materials, Methods, and Instructors

University-based programs and career development programs administered within large corporations frequently use highly sophisticated training technologies. Programs that use computers and other advanced technologies are costly and require highly trained instructors. Criminal justice managers may expect to obtain more of such training, but the currently available opportunities are few. Advanced technologies aside, the NMS training panelists observed that training materials pertinent to criminal justice management problems are exceptionally limited. Many of the available packaged courses are business-oriented.

A limited examination by NMS of the reading materials for executive development of criminal justice personnel revealed a mixture of the standard management materials found in most industry-public service programs. Use of these standard materials was found necessary for particular training courses, such as those on collective bargaining, since criminal justice-related case studies either did not exist or were only local in scope and limited. However, field interviews revealed a wealth of criminal justice materials that could be obtained through recorded or video discussions with practicing executives, and from files. A valuable source, for example, that has remained almost wholly untapped for training purposes, is the computer files of large agencies. NMS training panelists pointed out that executives of larger agencies do not often effectively exploit this abundant data for improving their own operations. They pointed out the possibilities of using such data in management training programs involving such activities as scout car arrival times, parole decisions, and other such decision-making operations. Likewise, reorganizations such as the decentralization and regionalization of juvenile programs in Massachusetts and the Montgomery County, Maryland, program for organizational change through management by objectives could provide excellent case study materials.[34]

The NMS did not survey instructor training and educational methodologies, and the focus here has been on general course content rather than on educational methods. Instructors, however, need to possess a working knowledge of the teaching methods that can best be applied to specific course areas. The NMS field interviews asked law enforcement executives to project executive skill needs during the next five years. The following subject areas were considered most important:

- Contemporary Social Problems
- Leadership and Supervision
- Organization, Administration, Operations
- Fiscal and Budget Managements
- Labor Relations
- Criminalistics
- Planning and Research
- Decision Making
- Management by Objectives
- Motivation, Morale, Productivity
- Written and Oral Communication
- Personnel Administration
- Media Relations
- Records and Information Systems
- Needs Assessment, Resource Allocation and Utilization

Techniques for covering these areas of study may be quite varied. In this regard, the practices of industry and major public service programs, such as the Internal Revenue Service, are worth noting.

University-based programs, especially those on a contract-institute basis, as illustrated in Appendices J and K, mix university staff and guest instructors taken from the ranks of practicing executives. This technique has the advantage of combining theoretical specialists with practitioners, with the caveat that the two approaches are integrated, not fragmented.

Industry in-house programs for the supervisory and middle management level courses usually rely on younger instructors with college degrees who have worked in line operations.[35] Xerox, for example chooses instructors on the basis of field performance, ability to communicate well, and managerial potential. These examples suggest similar utilization of criminal justice personnel. Adjunct teaching arrangements at local educational institutions could be tied directly to agency career programs. In addition, it could be useful for full-time university instructors to enter criminal justice programs at larger agencies or institutions for a designated period of one or two years. Such experience would revitalize the instructional process and help to overcome objections, especially by business executives, to the excessive theoretical bent of many management programs.[37]

2. Program Proliferation

Business firms and public agencies, spurred by management demands during the 1950-70 period, moved in many directions to obtain management training and education programs for in-service personnel. Such demands have led to a proliferation of college management training courses, many hastily conceived, poorly taugh , and incapable of addressing organizational needs. Larger corporations have tended toward in-house training programs to better control course content, the quality of the instruction, and the use of company-related course material and case studies. Military organizations and the U.S. Civil Service Commission have done likewise.[38] Many university programs that, over time, have proven their relevance, uniqueness, and value form a solid base for meeting in-service management training requirements. (See Appendix M.)

Management training is quite new in the criminal justice system compared with industry. The potential for expansion to meet the varying needs of over 50,000 managers and their successors is still latent. Therefore, an opportunity exists to bypass the costly proliferation of weak courses experienced earlier by business firms. Few criminal agencies are large enough to follow the route of very large corporations in establishing self-contained programs. The immediate challenge is to develop model regional programs, re-examining current offerings in the light of new demands. The proposal by the Academy for Criminal Justice Sciences to accredit programs in criminal justice might be viewed as one way to accomplish this end.[39]

3. Standards for Management Training and Education

In an attempt to provide goals for management training, the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals recommended a minimum of 40 hours of course study each year for law enforcement and corrections personnel.[40] However, a recent report of the Executive Committee of the IACP declined to set standards for management training of law enforcement officers. The study focused on the training needs of those about to enter management ranks. It called for each state and local jurisdiction to establish its own minimum supervisory and management training for new police chief executives.

The major problem in determining training standards is the variety of needs based on such factors as the size of the agency, its geographical location, and the complexity of its organization. This might suggest setting minimum standards in terms of objectives rather than hours of attendance. Courses might be planned to meet specific management goals established for first line supervisors through the top executive. This would be especially useful in agencies with over 100 employees.

Setting minimum hours of course time, such as the 40 hours recommended by NAC, could induce more managers to undertake courses or programs, but should not impair flexibility in scheduling. The NMS panelists pointed out the need for looking beyond numerically based standards to standards built around a total agency commitment to management training and education:

- Commitment by top management personnel to management development.
- Use of structured on-the-job training.
- Formulation of training objectives tied to organizational and individual needs.
- Assessment of individual potential based on past management performance, leadership potential, management experience, and education.
- Inclusion of coaching and career planning for subordinates as a management responsibility.
- Immediate utilization of newly acquired skills in job assignments.
- Use of in-house training programs whenever possible.
- Use of university, institute, or specially developed academy programs for mid- and top-level executives.

4. The Role of the University

The university has several important roles to play in management training. The first involves pre-service training and education. Businesses and some agencies in the civil service system hire individuals for junior managerial positions, usually in certain functional areas. Such individuals are prepared in business and public administration schools at the baccalaureate or graduate levels. Since most criminal justice entry positions in the sworn category involve recruit entry training, it is rare for the system to recruit potential managers from schools of business or public administration. History demonstrates that criminal justice tends to develop its own managers from the ranks. The experience of the business world as well tends to reinforce the view that there is little substitute for on-the-job experience.

However, more college trained individuals are entering the criminal justice field and at higher ranks than others enter. Both agencies and universities may wish to reexamine, in the light of the findings on executive needs, the pre-service options available to those who may desire to enter the system after obtaining an academic degree.

Law enforcement and corrections agencies traditionally start new entries at the lowest level of the career ladder. This practice insures a thorough grounding in the agencies' missions and operational procedures. However, the technical support needed by top executives in the critical functional areas indicates a need for more highly trained mid-level managers, particularly in the larger agencies. Pre-service training in technical areas for potential sworn officers or civilian personnel would permit a more adequate use of such talents.

Training and education obtained through a college program is therefore important, not because it provides background in criminal justice, but because it aids the selection of personnel who are to pursue management options. This would perhaps argue for closer collaboration between educational institutions and criminal justice agencies. Significant morale problems could be caused by improper screening for potential of those pursuing courses or degrees in hope of attaining future managerial positions, general or functional.

Coupling pre-service management training with in-service training could meet the objections of managers to over-emphasis on theory by university courses. Better and earlier programming of the career development of the younger mid-level managers could ease the crisis management problems of senior executives. For example, when only untrained or partially trained staff members are available for initial collective bargaining sessions, designated individuals are often rushed into a short course. By planning for programmed skill acquisition on a local or regional basis, the talent reserve for handling problem areas could be made stronger.

The matter of course availability and quality has been addressed earlier in this chapter. When considering university planning for criminal justice needs, some further steps are indicated. The NMS found that universities and colleges tend to respond to in-service needs. This is especially evident among community colleges. But in the management training area, the resources of four-year colleges and graduate schools need to be developed. However, development of programs being costly, university support for education in the needed areas should be extended. Each criminal justice system needs to examine locally and regionally its precise management training and educational requirements (see Appendix N - State Plans).

In addition to campus-based programs, there appears to be a need to consider the availability of close-to-home management training programs for those whose time is limited, whose remoteness from an academic instituion precludes any significant training opportunities, or whose staff is small.

5. Lateral Entry of Executives

Consideration must also be given to the matter of lateral transfer. Business buys the leadership talents of individuals, regardless of background, and moves such individuals into executive positions. For criminal justice, looking outside the system for such talent might enhance the executive leadership of agencies and institutions.

However, many points would require resolution before public agencies could effectively operate in such a manner. These include:

- Typical salaries in criminal justice agencies, which do not provide sufficient incentive for executive recruitment at the higher levels.

- Profit-sharing and other such financial incentives, which do not accrue to public employees but are normally part of executive recruitment.
- Provision of time for training and education which enhances growth potential and career development.

If these obstacles can be resolved, some of the factors with which the business-oriented executive would have to contend upon entering public service include the following:

- Regardless of talent and specialized training, it takes time to adapt to any new environment and time to translate knowledge into different circumstances; during this time the executive operates at minimum efficiency.
- Corporate authority differs from public service responsibility in regard to specific employee controls and constraints.
- The politics of city councils, legislators, and mayors are directly, not incidentally, related to the pressures upon government managers.
- Public pressures, via the media, are not commonplace in business and industry, and when they do exist, they are more easily calmed or neutralized.
- The vagueness or absence of accurate job descriptions and the rigidity of civil service restrictions severely limit the efficient utilization of public personnel.
- There are fewer trained and highly motivated middle managers and "chief deputies" in public agencies who can implement policy decisions from the top executive.
- The vast discretionary powers of operational personnel (such as patrol officers) make direction less absolute than the procedural orders that industry can place upon its line workers.

It seems to be a logical and overdue conclusion that criminal justice agencies need to embrace some of the talent idenfitication and development techniques of the private sector without losing sight of the real differences between business and publicly funded, non-profit service occupational groupings. This matter is somewhat complicated currently, since traditional promotional systems are being altered.

It seems reasonable to assume that sufficient talent can be recruited and developed to insure far greater management skills in criminal justice in the years ahead. But innovative practices are clearly needed, and those that already exist require translation and adaptation to police and corrections. Enabling such concepts to be applied to public safety endeavors may be truly one of the most significant and long-term changes which could be effected by federal resources. Some experimentation may be required, since local and state criminal justice agencies have not had to be fiscally accountable to their "stockholders" over the years. But times have changed and much can be learned and borrowed from business concepts, experimental approaches, and ideas--not withstanding the far different environment of the corporate world. This adaptation requires the leadership and stimulation of federal government resources, since the rationale for even modest departure from tradition is not always evident to the leaders of non-profit endeavors.

For the reasons cited earlier, the cost effectiveness and the long-term impact of "outside" managers raise very real questions. The more reasonable and defensible solutions seems to be in the development of executive-level personnel. Such experimentation is far more likely to be salable to mayors and city managers. The recent Police Chief Executive Report cited earlier supports this position insofar as it indicated that the superiors of police chiefs, more than the chiefs themselves, generally felt that management training for chiefs was greatly needed.

The validity of many of the conclusions stated above has been demonstrated by business. Although there are real dollar costs in proceeding in such a direction, advantages are also real. All too often criminal justice executive development is not regarded as an investment at all, but rather a reward of status based upon previous--not necessarily relevant--experience.

G. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Law enforcement executives form an important group for whom specialized training and education needs have not been adequately addressed. The NMS indicated that management training for criminal justice executives should be greatly modified and expanded and that the training gap is becoming increasingly critical given increasing sophistication of enforcement practices, the constraints of program budgeting, and the expansion of law enforcement staff and activities. An examination of the tasks, skills, and knowledge required by criminal justice executives (to be discussed fully in Volume VIII) demonstrates that their duties and responsibilities are comparable to those of executives in business and in other areas of public service.

Questionnaire responses and interviews showed the desire for thorough training for executives in functional areas such as collective bargaining, personnel management, community resource development, and planning and research. Associated with these job-related skills are concerns about how managers manage: leadership styles, problem findings, problem solving, dealing with unknowns, and the management of change. Management training should therefore include both leadership development and the acquisition of specific functional skills and knowledge. Training should be formulated with reference to the manager's operating job; at present, most programs available to law enforcement executives are available only through the general courses of academic institutions. To meet the nationwide need for special training and education, much the same as industry does. Most managerial programs now are available only infrequently, to meet pressing needs for very specific types of information. Much can be learned from business firms like IBM, which consider training an integral part of their operations. There is need for more uniformity, with planning, perhaps, on a regional basis. Some states have begun this type of planning, and federal government support for program development has been available for the past few years.

The proliferation of business courses, many badly organized and poorly taught, during the earlier rush by business and public service organizations to fill vastly increasing post-World War II needs, can be avoided in criminal justice by immediate and positive planning. Standards for management training might be expressed by determining objectives for jurisdictions, depending upon their size and missions, rather than by setting a minimum number of hours to be spent yearly on training. Certain management training and education models developed by universities and governmental agencies, including those exclusive to the criminal justice system, can be examined for their applicability to the development of regionally organized programs.

However, universities should reexamine their programs to insure that they are less theoretical, more job-related, and responsive to need. In developing new, comprehensive programs the major question seems to be what educational strategies best facilitate the acquisition of skills and knowledge that managers need. Determination through research of the proper mix of methodologies will enhance the management education process. However, instructional material should be job related—that is, developed around case studies and information derived from actual criminal justice operating conditions. Little of this type of material exists. Management research in criminal justice is practically nonexistent, and fostering it is a challenge to governmental agencies and universities.

There is a need to integrate supervisory, mid-level and top- management training to insure that each individual can relate his management duties and his training and education to the goals of the agency. Lateral entry of executives to criminal justice positions from business or public service organizations presents difficulties. The development of criminal justice executives through better planned management training and education opportunities can minimize the need to bring in others.

Management in criminal justice is on the threshold of greater demands for more detailed skill and knowledge. There is a need to examine the objectives of criminal justice management training and education in the light of those demands. Course availability and course development capabilities must be planned to meet these objectives. This would be enhanced by integration of planning efforts by state planning agencies, criminal justice agencies, universities, and private agencies. Program development might best be organized on a state or regional basis, with attention to local jurisdictions of varying size and mission. A series of regional educational centers could be established, with initial funding from the federal government to be matched or replaced by state funding eventually.

Such centers should provide for all management development activities and have the capability to offer individual courses or integrated course programs for first line supervisors to top management. Each center should maintain a curriculum program, educational materials, and a research program. The curriculum should emphasize job-related courses. The number of courses and programs at each center should be developed on the basis of studies of programs most urgently needed for law enforcement and corrections managers, juvenile corrections administrators, and for adult community-based administrators.

The establishment of regional centers does not preclude the continuance of university-based management training programs. Academic credit arrangements should be made with universities to provide incentives for supervisors, mid-level managers, and executives to complete degree programs in public management and administration, or in criminal justice with management emphasis. The intent of the centers should be to provide more accessible courses and to integrate courses to meet specific agency training needs. Special programs on a continuing basis should be established within the centers to include the senior level officials: state and local executives, judicial and legislative officials, state planning executives, and other senior officials. In addition, each center should establish and maintain a personnel assessment facility to advise agencies on the selection and career development of supervisors, mid-level managers, and top executives.

Existing management training centers operated under state auspices may be found to meet the needs of some areas for regional centers. Private executive training programs furnishing training in certain subject matter could be integrated in the regional centers. Regional centers might be established in an academic setting, utilizing existing programs.

Instructor training programs should be provided in conjunction with center programs, and should introduce knowledge of educational technology. Most instructors should have had experience within the criminal justice system. Rotating instructorships could be geared to agency manager development programs, with a stint at the center for 1-2 years being an integral part of career development.

The urgent need for manpower training suggests that regional management development centers be established as soon a possible. In order to facilitate this action, a national advisory planning group should be established to develop program offerings and the administrative structure for the regional training centers. The group should also consider ways in which universities and other organizations could supplement the regional training center offerings. The NMS findings suggest that the program should not be national in scope but should focus on local, state, and regional needs, taking into consideration existing resources and state plans.

CHAPTER V

NOTES AND REFERENCES

1. The decision process under which law enforcement and correctional officials must operate within the criminal justice system is amply detailed in A. Keith Bottomley, Decision in the Penal Process (Fred B. Rothman and Company, 1973).

2. For the evaluation of the police role in a community setting and the development of police problems over time with emphasis upon employee organizations, see Donald W. Berney, Law and Order Politics: A History and Role Analysis of Police Officer Organizations (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Washington, 1971).

3. Peter Drucker, Management (Harper, 1974), pp. 158-166.

4. See also Joan L. Wolfe and John F. Heaphy, eds., Readings on Productivity in Policing (Police Foundation, 1975), pp. 1-149.

5. Drucker, pp. 68-70.

6. The Montgomery County, Maryland study is outlined in Management by Objectives Manual, Montgomery County Department of Police, June 1976. The study is in its first year. It is designed to look at the department in totality, covering the system of goals and objectives and their measurement, management improvements in operations, job specifications, budget system, career paths, selection, promotion and training programs, automated personnel system and staffing patterns, and performance evaluations.

7. Wolfe and Heaphy, Readings on Productivity in Policing; National Commission on Productivity, A Report on the Advisory Group on Productivity in Law Enforcement on Opportunities for Improving Productivity in Police Services (1973), pp. 1-74.

8. J. P. Morgan, Jr. and Richard J. Korstad. "Impact of Collective Bargaining on Law Enforcement and Corrections," (Public Safety Research Institute, 1976) pp. 38-47. (A study commissioned by the National Manpower Survey.)

9. Ilene Bergsmann, Police Unions. (International City Management Association, March 1976), p. 3.

10. Arvid Anderson, "The Structure of Public Service Bargaining," in Public Workers and Public Unions, edited by Sam Zagoria (Prentice-Hall, 1973), p. 43.

11. Henry A. Juris and Peter Feuville, The Impact of Police Unions: Summary Report (Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1973), pp. 15-16.

12. Thomas J. Hilligan, "Public Employee Organizations: Past Developments and Present Problems," Labor Law Journal (May 1973), p. 298.

13. Clarence R. Huff, "Unionization Behind the Walls: An Analytic Study of the Ohio Prisoner's Labor Union Movement," (Ph.d. dissertation, Ohio State University, 1974); American Bar Association, Correctional Economics Center, Resource Needs of Correctional Administrators, (1974) p. 19

14. Bergsmann, pp. 8 and 9.

15. U.S. Department of Labor, Collective Bargaining Agreements for Police and Firefighters. Bulletin 1885. (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1976), p. 4 and pp. 10-89.

16. The American Arbitration Association has designed and conducted a series of 7-day training programs in labor relations for the National Institute of Corrections. Utilizing topics indicated, these training programs are heavily weighted in the direction of simulation of collective bargaining processes in which there is a maximum of student participation in a climate of hard-nosed bargaining. Department of Education and Training, American Arbitration Association.

17. Thomas L. Wheeler and Gerald W. Shanahan, "Management in Law Enforcement," Journal of Police Science and Administration 3 (December 1975): 469; and David Greytak, "The Budgetary Effects of Inflation: A Case Study of Expenditures for Police Services," Journal of Police Science and Administration 3 (December 1975): 482. For studies of management in corrections, see the research contained in Elmer K. Nelson and Catherine H. Lovell, Developing Correctional Administrators, (Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1969).

18. J. Sterling Livingstone. "Myth of the Well-Educated Manager," Harvard Business Review 46 (January-February 1971): 79-89.

19. See Nelson and Lovell, pp. 47-50 on managerial style grids. These are further related to prison organization in David Duffee, Correctional Policy and Prison Organization (Wiley, 1975) and an earlier publication of Vincent O'Leary and David Duffee, "Managerial Behavior and Correctional Policy," Public Administration Review (November-December 1971): 603-616. One cogent remark in Federal Probation pinpoints the management style dilemma: "For one thing, the uncertainty about the causes of crime and the related solutions which may solve the crime problem, and the current inability of social science research to provide a more relevant frame of reference to determine alternative courses of action in estimating their own consequences, have conditioned, but left ambiguous, the process of management and the style of management in all criminal justice settings." Robert M. Latta and Jack Cocks, "Management Strategies for Federal Probation Officers in Metropolitan Areas," Federal Probation 39 (September 1975): 10-17.

    See also, Billy L. Wayson, "Prison Administration in a Time of Change." In: Handbook of Criminology, edited by Daniel Glaser (Rand-McNally College Publishing Company, 1974).

20. Henry Mintzberg, "The Manager's Job: Folklore and Fact," *Harvard Business Review* 53 (July-August 1975): 49-61 and, "Planning on the Left Side and Managing on the Right," *Harvard Business Review* 54 (July-August 1976): 49-58.

21. Michael G. Duerr, *Are Today's Schools Preparing for Tomorrow's Business Leaders?* (The Conference Board: 1974).

22. George A. W. Boehm, "Shaping Decisions with Systems Analysis," *Harvard Business Review* 54 (September-October 1976); 91-99.

23. *Ibid*.

24. Arch Patton, "The Coming Flood of Young Executives," *Harvard Business Review* 54 (September-October 1976): 20.

25. The NMS Management Training Conference, June 16, 1976. See also, findings of the field job analysis interviews as contained in Volume VIII.

26. For a discussion of the executive opinions on the best way to learn various tasks they must perform, see Volume VIII of this report with reference to administrative positions covered in the field analysis and interview program.

27. Charles L. Newman and Barbara R. Rice, "Police Executive Development: An Educational Program at the Pennsylvania State University," *Police Chief* 41 (April 1974): 74-77; and, Charles L. Newman *et al.*, "Police Executive In-Service Training and Its Effect on Selected Personality Traits: A Preliminary Analysis," *Police Law Quarterly* 2 (April 1973): 14-25.

28. The NMS Conference Notes, Criminal Justice Administration Section, American Society for Public Administration. Sheraton-Park Hotel, Washington D.C.: April 19-22, 1976.

29. For example, the National Sheriffs' Institute (NSI) sponsored by the National Sheriffs' Association and funded by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA), is located on the campus of the University of Southern California at Los Angeles. The objective of the training is to improve the management, supervisory, and administrative knowledge and skills of newly-elected sheriffs. A series of intensive two-week classroom training sessions is provided on-campus. Additional field retraining sessions of two or three days' duration are conducted on a regional basis. The curriculum includes such subjects as:

    Public administration
    Organization and staff
    Management systems
    Community crime prevention
    Program evaluation
    Planning
    Finance and fiscal management
    Change and innovation
    Decision making
    Use of executive time
    Labor relations
    Grantsmanship
    The Criminal Justice System
    Use of community resources
    Correctional administration
    County governments

The training approach emphasizes active participation by the sheriff/trainees. Role playing, simulation, gaming, and other participative techniques are used in addition to lectures by highly qualified administrators and academicians. The intent is to create a learning environment which will facilitate not only the acquisition of new information, but also the development of key management skills. Although all newly elected sheriffs are invited to attend the Institute, participants are selected from different geographical areas. Approximately 400 newly-elected sheriffs have been trained by the Institute.

Further, the New England Institute of Law Enforcement (Babson) provides for two levels of management training. A three-week session (10 annually) is intended to develop leadership skills for sergeants or higher. A one-week seminar (seven annually) for executives covers budgetary planning, police community relations and police personnel policy.

The FBI National Executive Institute utilized The Police Chief Executive Report (1976) in designing its new program. The topical areas are: trends--international, national, social, political, and economic-which affect affirmative action programs; labor relations; media relations; organizational structures for the future; financing police operations; and crime and its impact on the police funding. "The FBI's National Executive Institute: Educating Law Enforcement's Top Level Managers," FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin (September 1976): 3-8.

30. "The World of IBM Education," Change (Winter 1973): 36-42.

31. The NMS reviewed management training programs of the following organizations in the Spring of 1976: American Telephone and Telegraph, Bank of America, Citibank, Cummins Engine Company, Inc., EXXON Corporation, Ford Motor Company, General Electric Company, General Motors Corporation, International Business Machines, Marriott Corporation, Monsanto Company, RCA Corporation, Sears Roebuck and Company, Textron Incorporated, U.S. Steel Corporation, and Xerox Corporation.

32. Bernard Bass and James A. Vaughn, Training in Industry: The Management of Learning (Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1968), p. 79.

33. U.S. Bureau of the Census and Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Expenditure and Employment Data for Criminal Justice System 1974 (1976), p. 21

34. The initial evaluation of the Massachusetts program is contained in Lloyd E. Ohlin, Robert Coates, and Alden D. Miller, "Radical Correctional Reform: A Case Study of the Massachusetts Youth Correctional System," Harvard Educational Review 44 (February 1974): 74-111.

35. George J. Berwitt, "The Big Shake-Up in Management Development," Dun's Review (March 1973): 79-81

36. Judith Miller, "Xerox Builds a New University," Change (Winter 1973), 40-41.

CHAPTER V
(continued)

37. Duerr, Are Today's Schools Preparing Tomorrow's Business Leaders? (The Conference Board) p. 6. . . As a German executive states: "Many in the business world regard the economic science disciplines as excessively theoretical and too far removed from practice. In the experimental sciences, too, which in the past have been very closely related to practice, a strong tendency in favor of purely theoretical work, both on research and in university teaching is now unmistakable. This may be partly due to the so-called knowledge explosion and to the resulting necessity for abstraction. Unfortunately, however, this trend is threatening to increase the difficulties of the already difficult transition from university to practical life and indeed, as may be seen already in isolated instances, to create a certain apprehension among graduates who have reached this stage in their careers."

38. Management and Executive Development in Industry, Universities, and the Federal Government (Rock Island, Illinois, U.S. Army Management Education Training Agency, 1974).

39. See Appendix E for a discussion of the proposed accreditation standards.

40. National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. Police, pp. 426-35. Corrections, pp. 494-5. A comparison of the total space provided for the discussion of staff development; nine pages Police, a page and one-half in Corrections may be indicative of the need for more accelerated efforts in the corrections field.

41. The Police Chief Executive Report. A report of the Police Chief Executive Committee (International Association of Chiefs of Police 1976) pp. 25-33.

42. For example, see Dennis P. Stevin, "The Assessment Center: A Breakthrough in Management Appraisal and Development," Personnel Journal 51 (April 1972); and, William J. Kearney and Desmond D. Martin, "The Assessment Center: A Tool for Promotional Decisions," Police Chief (January 1975).

CHAPTER VI. PROGRAMS OF THE FEDERAL BUREAU OF INVESTIGATION

The Federal Bureau of Investigation initiated provision of formal training to the law enforcement personnel of state and local governments in 1935, when the FBI Police Training School was established. The next four decades have seen the FBI's training role evolve to the point where the Bureau now offers four types of assistance to state and local governments. The first is the FBI National Academy, the successor to the Police Training School. The Academy offers an 11-week, college-level training course that each year enrolls a total of approximately 1,000 carefully selected mid-management personnel of state-local law enforcement agencies.

The second type of assistance involves specialized training courses for state and local police personnel that range from three days to four weeks in length and cover such topics as hostage negotiation and training instruction. The FBI's third effort provides the services of the Bureau's field agents as lecturers on subjects for which they have been certified. These services are provided at sites designated by state and local law enforcement agencies. Finally, the FBI's newest endeavor, inaugurated in 1976, is the National Executive Institute, a management training program for police chiefs and deputy chiefs.

Sections A-D of this chapter describe the FBI's training-assistance activities in the four areas. Section E develops estimates of the costs, in fiscal year 1975, of the three programs then in operation. To the extent permitted by the available data and the nature of the programs, the cost analysis includes estimates of the costs incurred by state and local governments as well as those of the FBI. Section F provides a set of recommendations whose implementation would target the FBI's efforts more effectively on the highest priority training requirements of state and local governments as they are identified elsewhere in the present study.

A. THE NATIONAL ACADEMY

The establishment of the FBI Police Training School in 1935 was motivated, at least in part, by the recommendation of the Wickersham Commission for more formalized and professional training for law enforcement officers. From its founding until 1972 approximately 200 state-local officers a year were trained by the School at the Justice Department in downtown Washington. In June 1972 the National Academy opened at a new $27 million campus at Quantico, Virginia. The eight-building, 70-acre facility, which is also used by the FBI to train its own agents, has a capacity of 1,000 state-local officers per year. The campus includes dormitories with 700 beds, food service and other living accomodations, specially designed instructional buildings and equipment, and physical fitness and firearm-training facilities.

In general, the purpose of the National Academy is to supplement the training local and state agencies offer by providing intensive training to selected mid-level personnel. Unfortunately, no more specific definition of the Academy's objectives is available from either the enabling legislation or the FBI itself. Although it is implicit that the Academy is to be for specially chosen law enforcement personnel and that it is to develop administrative abilities, neither the criteria for selection nor the specifications for program content have been explicitly elaborated.[1] The FBI's specification that openings be divided among the 59 FBI field offices according to the number of police in each area suggests that the National Academy's objective is to serve regions of the country and levels of government equally in proportion to their overall numbers.

Attendance at the National Academy is important for the substantive knowledge gained; it is also considered to be the most significant credential a mid-level officer can obtain to improve his prospects for future advancement. In a field that has little in the way of institutional credentials, graduation from the National Academy is universally considered to be an indication of knowledge and ability. The Academy's follow-up statistics attest to the fact that its graduates are promoted frequently and that many now occupy high positions in police management.

1. The Enrollees

Almost 1,000 state and local law enforcement officers are graduated each year from the 11-week course of the National Academy.[2] With the graduation of the session ending on December 11, 1975, the total number of alumni of the Training School and the Academy active in law enforcement is estimated to have been slightly more than 6,000. Prospective enrollees in this program must meet a number of requirements set forth by the FBI. Candidates must be employed by a state or local law enforcement agency and must have had at least five years of experience. They must be between the ages of 25 and 51, in good physical condition, and have at least a high school education. Each must also be nominated by the head of his or her agency and must meet FBI standards for integrity, conduct, character, and reputation. Applicants must agree in writing to remain in law enforcement for three years after graduation from the Academy, though the agreement is not legally binding.

The selection process is initiated when the chief executive of an agency submits an application for himself or for one of his personnel. The training coordinator in each of the 59 FBI field offices is responsible for evaluating applications from agencies within the territory of the office. Acceptance and prioritization of applications is the exclusive responsibility of the field offices. There are, therefore, no uniform criteria for allocating openings. No information is available on how many applications are received, but the FBI estimates that approximately 2,800 candidates are currently awaiting appointment to the Academy.

Once a candidate has been tentatively selected, an intensive background investigation is conducted. The investigation (at an average cost of more than $1,900) is designed not only to detect violations of the law, but also to uncover sexual misconduct. The findings of the investigation are forwarded to Quantico, where the formal appointment decision is made.[3] Given the importance attached to the background investigation, and its high costs, it is ironic that evidence exists that the investigation is superficial. Ungar, for example, cites an FBI police training coordinator who suggest that the National Academy background investigations are the most cursory the Bureau performs.

> Unless something like a criminal record is turned up, the recommendations and judgements of their superiors [the chiefs who submitted the applications] are almost always accepted.[4]

No information is available from the FBI on how many applicants are rejected as a result of the background investigation, but the number is reported to be very small. One FBI official conjectures that the background investigation encourages chiefs to screen their applicants more carefully than they might in its absence.

The typical National Academy student is a white male who has been in law enforcement for more than 10 years, has had some exposure to college, and is a mid-level manager. Students average 38 years of age and have had 14 years of law enforcement experience. Eighty-six percent of the graduates during the period October 1974 through October 1975 had completed some college course before attending the Academy, and 22 percent had at least a bachelor's degree. The median educational level is an associate-in-arts degree. Information supplied to the NMS by the FBI verifies that the Academy is run primarily for managers. Ninety percent of the students are above the rank of patrolman, and 65 percent are mid- or top-level managers. Executives or their deputies comprise 15 percent of the student population (see Table VI-I).

Although the FBI records do not show how many blacks and other minority members have attended the Academy, the number is acknowledged to be small. There have been two women at each of the most recent four Academy sessions. Since agency heads decide who to nominate for admission, the FBI argues that it has no control over the sex or minority-group composition of its classes.

The Academy draws most heavily from small agencies. As Table VI-2 indicates, 45 percent of the enrollees are from agencies with fewer than 100 employees; only 37 percent of law enforcement personnel are employed by agencies of that size. Only 29 percent of the Academy's students are from agencies with more than 500 employees, although such agencies employ more than 44 percent of all law enforcement personnel.

The distribution of National Academy students by type of agency is generally consistent with the national distribution. Table VI-3 reveals that counties are somewhat over-represented, while municipal agencies are slightly underrepresented. While the statutory purpose of the National Academy is to train state, county, and local personnel, approximately 7 percent of its American students are federal law enforcement personnel.[5] According to an FBI administrator, military police are routinely accepted. Special agents in charge also occasionally recommend other federal personnel, such as Park Police and Bureau of Indian Affairs Police, when the need for special training is thought to be acute. Approximately 4 percent of the total enrollment consists of foreign officers.

The National Academy's policy is to distribute openings among the FBI's

TABLE VI-1

OCCUPATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF FBI NATIONAL ACADEMY STUDENTS, 1974-75[a]

Occupation	Number	Percentage Distribution
All Students	1441	--
No Response[b]	139	--
All Responses	1302	100.0%
Top Management (executive or executive's assistant)	200	15.3
Mid-level Management (captain, lieutenant, major, or inspector)	643	49.3
Supervisory (sergeant or corporal)	326	25.0
Line (patrolman, trooper, deputy sheriff, or detective)	133	10.2

[a] National Academy classes 99-104.

[b] Includes responses not classifiable by rank (e.g., public safety).

Source: FBI Survey of National Academy Students, Sessions 99-104 (October 1974-March 1976), unpublished (1976).

TABLE VI-2

DISTRIBUTION OF FBI NATIONAL ACADEMY STUDENTS BY SIZE OF AGENCY COMPARED WITH THE DISTRIBUTION OF ALL SWORN LAW ENFORCEMENT EMPLOYEES BY AGENCY SIZE, 1974

Agency Size	FBI National Academy Students	Law Enforcement Sworn Employees
All Agency Sizes	100.0%	100.0%
More than 500 personnel	29.0	44.8
451-500	1.1	.8
401-450	1.9	1.8
351-400	3.1	.8
301-350	2.2	1.7
251-300	2.8	2.2
201-250	3.7	2.7
151-200	3.4	3.3
101-150	8.0	5.6
151-100	16.5	11.7
Fewer than 50	28.5	24.9

Source: FBI survey of National Academy students October 1974-October 1975; Uniform Crime Reports for the United States-1974 (1975), pp. 240-93.

TABLE VI-3

DISTRIBUTION OF FBI NATIONAL ACADEMY STUDENTS BY TYPE OF AGENCY COMPARED WITH THE DISTRIBUTION OF ALL LAW ENFORCEMENT PERSONNEL BY TYPE OF AGENCY

Type of Agency	FBI National Academy Students-Oct. 1974-Mar. '76		All U.S. Law Enforcement Personnel in 1972	
	Number	Percent of Total	Number	Percent of Total
No Response*	66	-	-	-
All Respondents	1,375	100.0%	597,023	100.0%
Municipal Agencies	856	62.3	378,052	63.3
County Agencies, total	228	16.6	78,003	13.0
Police	79	5.7	N.A.	N.A.
Sheriffs agencies	149	10.8	N.A.	N.A.
State Agencies	189	13.7	78,842	13.2
Federal, total	102	7.4	62,126	10.4
Military	48	3.5	N.A.	N.A.
Others	54	3.9	N.A.	N.A.

*Includes responses not classifiable by agency type, such as those of foreign officers.

Source: U.S. Department of Justice, U.S. Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics (1972), tables 1.3 and 1.11, pp. 63 and 60; unpublished FBI survey of National Academy students (1976).

59 field offices in proportion to the number of law enforcement personnel in each area served. Table VI-4 shows the distribution of Academy students and the police population among the Census regions and states. The third column of the table displays the differences between the two distributions and the fourth column indicates whether each difference is statistically significant at the 95 or 99 percent confidence level. There are several large disparities between the police population and National Academy representation by region and state. Two Census regions--the Middle Atlantic and East Coast Central--are under-represented at the 99 percent level of significance. By the same criterion, the South Atlantic, East South Central and Mountain regions are over-represented at the National Academy.

The discrepancies among the states follow discernable patterns. The under-represented states are in the Northeast and North Central areas of the country, are densely populated, and are plagued by relatively high crime rates. Specifically, four states (New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Massachusetts) are under-represented, while 11 (Virginia, Georgia, Wisconsin, North Dakota, Arkansas, Washington, Alaska, Tennessee, Wyoming, Utah, and Nevada) are over-represented at the 99 percent level of significance.

2. The Program

The training program of the National Academy has evolved significantly in the past eight years. A major overhaul of the curriculum between 1968 and 1974 resulted in more analytical and less prescriptive course content. The number of social science and management courses was increased substantially. Several course options are now offered in each department so that the differing abilities and interests of students can more readily be accomodated.

There are two components of the program--academic courses for which college credit is given and non-academic courses that include weaponry, physical training,

TABLE VI-4

DISTRIBUTION OF FBI NATIONAL ACADEMY STUDENTS BY STATE AND CENSUS REGION COMPARED WITH THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE POLICE POPULATION BY STATE AND REGION, 1974-75

Census Region and State	FBI National Academy Students as a Percentage of the U.S. Total, Oct. 1974-March 1976	Police Population as a Percentage of the U.S. Total, 1974	Difference	Significance Test of Differences
U.S. Total	100.0%	100.0%	--	--
New England	5.9	6.3	-0.4	*
Connecticut	1.8	1.6	.2	
Maine	.5	.5	0.0	
Massachusetts	1.8	3.1	-1.3	*
New Hampshire	.9	.5	.4	
Rhode Island	.7	.4	.3	
Vermont	.2	.2	0.0	
Mid-Atlantic	13.8	23.4	-9.6	*
New Jersey	4.1	4.6	- .5	
New York	5.9	13.4	-7.5	*
Pennsylvania	3 8	5.4	-1.6	
East North Central	16.8	18.7	-1.9	
Illinois	4.7	6.1	-1.4	*
Indiana	1.6	1.9	- .3	
Michigan	3.8	4.7	- .9	
Ohio	3.6	4.1	- .5	
Wisconsin	3.1	2.0	1.1	*
West North Central	6.1	6.7	- .6	
Iowa	.8	1.0	- .2	
Kansas	.9	.9	0.0	
Minnesota	1.2	1.5	- .3	
Missouri	1.4	2.3	- .9	
Nebraska	.9	.6	.3	
North Dakota	.6	.2	.4	*
South Dakota	.4	.2	.2	
South Atlantic	18.3	13.4	4.9	*
Delaware	.5	.3	.2	
District of Columbia	.6	1.2	- .6	**
Florida	4.9	3.5	1.4	*
Georgia	3.1	1.8	1.3	*
Maryland	2.6	2.1	.5	
North Carolina	1.4	1.8	- .4	
South Carolina	.9	.8	.1	
Virginia	3.9	1.5	1.4	
West Virginia	.4	.4	0.0	

Table VI-4

Census Region and State	FBI National Academy Students as a Percentage of the U.S. Total, Oct. 1974-March 1976	Police Population as a Percentage of the U.S. Total, 1974	Difference	Significance Test of Differences
East South Central	7.1	4.4	2.7	*
Alabama	2.0	1.3	.7	**
Kentucky	1.1	1.0	.1	
Mississippi	1.8	.8	1.0	**
Tennessee	2.2	1.3	.9	*
West South Central	8.8	7.5	1.3	*
Arkansas	1.3	.7	.6	
Louisiana	1.2	1.8	- .6	
Oklahoma	1.2	1.0	.2	
Texas	5.1	4.0	1.1	
Mountain	6.7	4.0	2.7	*
Arizona	1.2	1.0	.2	
Colorado	1.1	1.0	.1	
Idaho	.6	.3	.3	
Montana	.4	.3	.1	
Nevada	1.2	.4	.8	*
New Mexico	.8	.5	.3	
Utah	1.0	.4	.6	*
Wyoming	.5	.2	.3	*
Pacific	15.7	13.7	2.0	
Alaska	.6	.2	.4	*
California	11.2	11.0	.2	
Hawaii	.4	.5	- .1	
Oregon	1.4	.9	.5	
Washington	2.2	.3	.9	*

*Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two percentages at the 99 percent confidence level.

** Indicates a statistically significant difference between the two percentages at the 95 percent confidence level.

Non-significant differences are left blank.

Sources: FBI survey of National Academy students, 1974-75, unpublished (1975); U. S. Department of Justice, Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics (1974), Table 1.17, page 60.

and electives. The time of the typical student is divided about equally between academic and non-academic course work.

All of the courses in the academic program are certified for college credit by the University of Virginia. The University reviews the credentials of proposed instructors and passes on the acceptability of courses. Every student is required to take one course in each of five departments: forensic science, management science, behavioral science, education and communications arts, and law. Electives, graduate-level courses, and independent-study options are available for students who have completed the required courses elsewhere or who have special needs. Table VI-5 provides a list of the academic courses offered by each of the departments.

The non-academic program consists of three components—firearms (32 hours), physical training (33 hours), and law-enforcement-arts electives (30 hours).[6]

While the course offerings appear to be well thought out, the proportion of the Academy's time and resources allocated to management training is only one-fifth of the total course work. When asked why a relatively small percentage of the course work relates to management, an Academy administrator indicated to the NMS that the feasibility of restructuring the curriculum to emphasize the area had been considered, but that a poll of graduates produced the overwhelming response that the multidisciplinary structure should be retained. They argued that managers need familiarity with all the areas covered in the curriculum, and that all of the course work relates in one way or another to management.

3. Instructional Personnel

Of the approximately 40 full-time instructors who teach academic subjects, all but a few are FBI agents. As Table VI-5 shows, two have doctorates and four hold law degrees. All but three of the remaining instructors have master's

TABLE VI-5

ACADEMIC COURSE OFFERINGS AND INSTRUCTOR QUALIFICATIONS IN THE FBI NATIONAL ACADEMY, BY DEPARTMENT, 1975

Department	Full-time Instructors					Course Offerings
	Total	B.A.	M.A.	J.D.	Ph.D.	
Forensic Science	5	1	4			Courses Satisfying Requirement: Survey of Forensic Science, Classification of Fingerprints, Advanced Latent Fingerprint Training, Handwriting and Document Examination, Introduction to Gambling Technology, Theory and Principles of Crime Scene Search, Surveillance Photography.
Management Science	11	-	10	1		Courses Satisfying Requirement: Management for Law Enforcement, Management Seminar, Management of Financial Operations for Law Enforcement Agencies, Police Labor Relations and Collective Bargaining, Introduction to Electronic Data Processing for Law Enforcement, Human Behavior in Organizations (graduate). Electives: Basic Budgeting for Law Enforcement, Problem Solving and Decision Making, Police Unions.
Behavioral Science	10	2	8			Courses Satisfying Requirement: Socio-Psychological Aspects of Community Behavior, Police Problems in the Urban Environment, Applied Criminology, Behavioral Science Research in Law Enforcement Seminar (graduate).
Education and Communications Arts	11		9		2	Courses Satisfying Requirement: Education and Training in Law Enforcement, Effective Communications, Contemporary Problems in Law Enforcement Instruction and Program Administration (graduate). Elective: Instructional Technology
Law	3			3		Courses Satisfying Requirement; The Criminal Law Electives: Elective Criminal Law Course, How to Find the Law
Totals	40	3	31	4	2	

Sources: University of Virginia School of Continuing Education Record, 1974-75; National Academy, Academic Curriculum (1975).

degrees. While the ratio of National Academy instructors with post-graduate degrees is high (39 percent) the proportion of instructors with Ph.D.'s or law degrees is low (15 percent). In criminal-justice education programs receiving LEEP assistance, 88 percent of the full-time instructors have at least a master's degree—31 percent hold Ph.D.'s and 11 percent law degrees.[7]

The Academy is interested in bringing in more civilian instructors, but officials of the Bureau point out that agent instructors know how to structure their courses to be relevant to fellow law enforcement officers, and consequently are well received by their students.

4. Conclusions

When considered in relation to its objectives, the FBI National Academy must be judged successful. The numerous course offerings allow for the different interests of its students. The Academy's instructors are well qualified academically and by virtue of their law enforcement experience. Graduates almost uniformly rate the program highly. Some outside observers criticize the National Academy for being insular and unwilling to attempt innovative teaching techniques and subject matter, but others point out that the program has improved considerably in the past several years and can be expected to continue to evolve under the current administrators.

B. SPECIALIZED COURSES

The FBI facility at Quantico is also the site for the provision of training to state and local law enforcement officers in specialized schools lasting from a few days to four weeks, with 5.5 days the average. The courses cover such topics as white-collar crime, forensic science, instructor development, hostage negotiation, crisis intervention, management, crime resistance, law, and major case investigations.

The selection of students for the specialized courses is generally a cooperative process between the FBI field offices and officials in law enforcement agencies within the area of each field office. Since there are a limited number of openings for each school, the FBI relies on the training coordinator and other personnel in each field office to identify those state and local agencies that have the greatest need for specially trained officers in the subject matter being offered. For example, through the experience gained by the FBI field agents in cooperating extensively with local forensic laboratory technicians, they can determine which agencies located in their areas most need additional training for their crime laboratory personnel, and recommend that these agencies be given priority in sending their staff members to the special school. Likewise, in other subjects, by working with the local agencies FBI field officers have a good idea of the strengths and shortcomings of the local agencies, and can encourage the weaker departments to utilize FBI specialized training. In some cases, however, the FBI may specify requirements for attendance. For example, the Bureau requires that at least one command officer from a local agency attend if it is sending a team or part of a team to a course in special weapons and tactics.

The special course offerings at the FBI Academy cover both basic and topical subject matter. The basic courses provide advanced training in traditional subjects, such as major case investigations. These courses may change only in terms of the techniques that are currently taught to reflect changes in technology and effectiveness. Topical courses, on the other hand, may change both in subject matter and techniques taught to meet the current needs of state and local agencies. For example, riot-control training was a high priority for a few years and then become less important as the incidence of civil disorders waned and hostage-negotiation training became a more important need of local police. Topical courses are viewed by the FBI as especially appropriate in instances where knowledge of the behavioral aspects of criminal acts is important to effective law enforcement.

C. FIELD TRAINING

Through its field offices, the FBI provides training services to state and local police academies and other training programs upon request. These services include assistance in designing curricula, organizing and implementing training programs, furnishing audio-visual aids, and providing instructors. Each field office has a designated training coordinator and about 2,000 FBI special agents are certified as instructors.

Four major categories of subject matter are taught by FBI field office personnel: (1) administrative and supervisory, which includes executive management, budgeting, and supervisor training; (2) instructor development; (3) behavioral science, including applied criminology, police-community relations, crisis intervention, and hostage negotiation; and (4) investigative subjects, such as bank robbery, civil rights, fingerprint analysis, fugitive apprehension, police jurisdiction, recording crime scenes, roadblocks, and court testimony. Field instruction is generally conducted at facilities provided by the state or local agency, and may be for recruit, in-service, or refresher training.

During fiscal year 1975 the FBI estimates that it provided 108,383 hours of instruction to 320,000 state and local criminal justice personnel at 10,516 locations. Figure VI-1, reproduced from recent Congressional testimony by the Director of the FBI, shows the geographical distribution fo the field training sites in fiscal 1975.

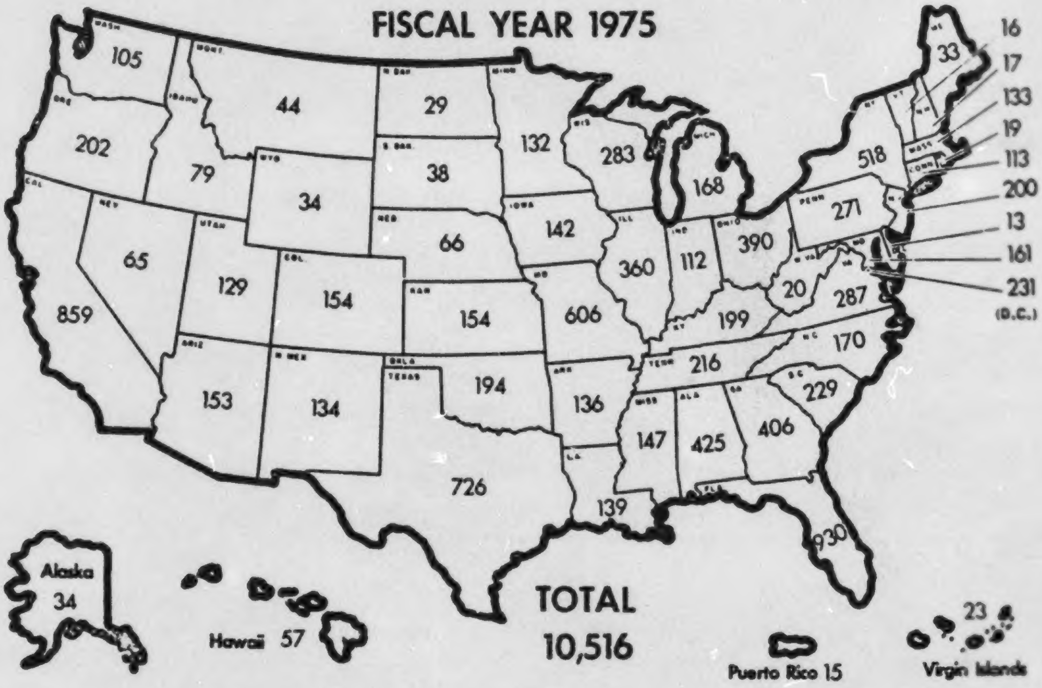
FIGURE VI-1

FEDERAL BUREAU OF INVESTIGATION
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE

LOCAL POLICE TRAINING SCHOOLS

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH FBI PROVIDED TRAINING ASSISTANCE (BY GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION)

FISCAL YEAR 1975



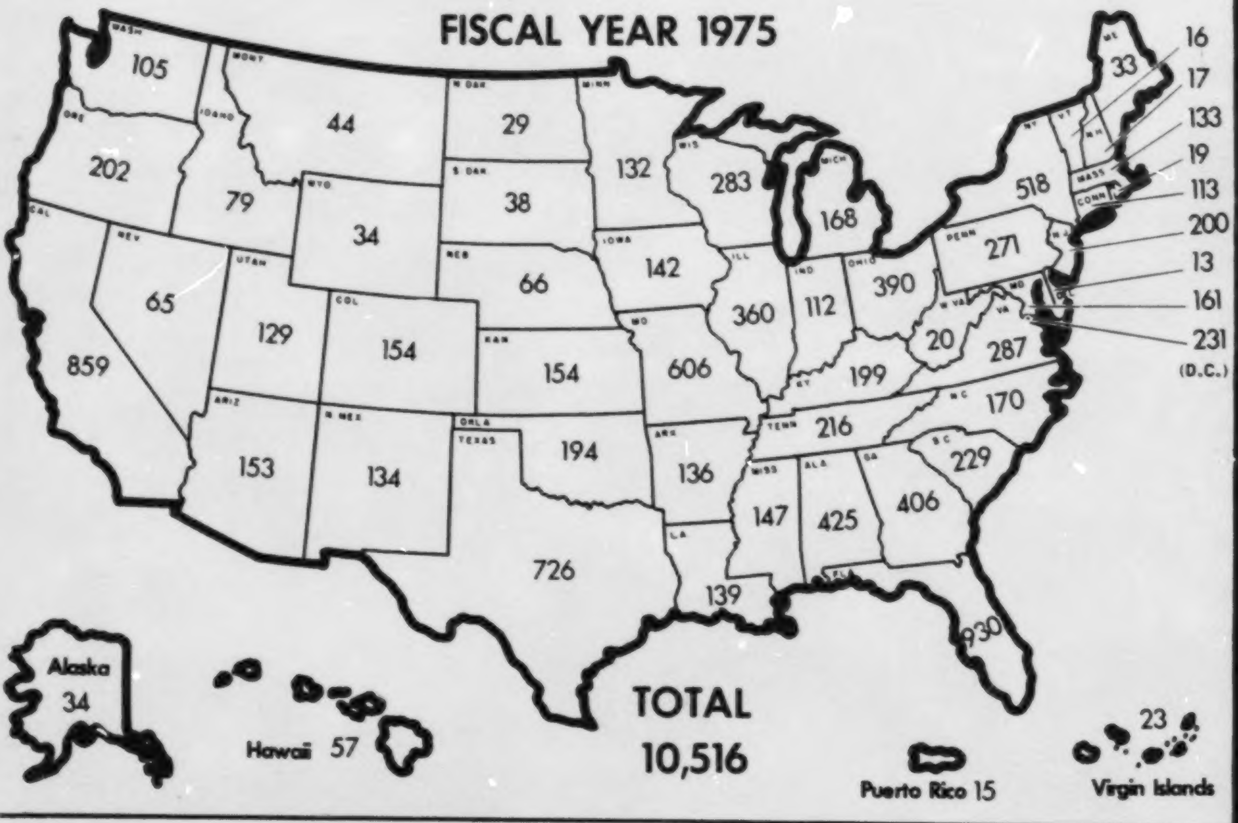
FEDERAL BUREAU OF INVESTIGATION
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE

LOCAL POLICE TRAINING SCHOOLS

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH FBI PROVIDED TRAINING ASSISTANCE

(BY GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION)

FISCAL YEAR 1975



TOTAL
10,516

D. NATIONAL EXECUTIVE INSTITUTE

In fiscal year 1976 the FBI instituted a new training program designed to contribute to the development of the managerial skills and knowledge of police executives. This program, known as the National Executive Institute (NEI), is intended to complement the offerings of the National Academy, which is targeted at middle rather than top management of law enforcement agencies. The program was organized by the FBI in cooperation with the Major Cities Chief Administrators and the International Association of Chiefs of Police.

The first NEI program began March 25, 1976 and concluded September 12th. It consisted of a series of four four-day sessions. The sessions were held at two-month intervals over weekends in order to minimize the executives' time away from their agencies. The program was limited to chiefs and sheriffs of the 30 largest departments. Chief executives and deputies of smaller agencies will be invited to future programs, two of which are scheduled for fiscal year 1977. Current plans call for four NEI programs per year beginning in fiscal year 1978.

The four-day session constitutes the core of an intensive study program. It is to be preceded by preparatory reading and study and followed up by the preparation of a project which applies the new learning. College or graduate school credit is available to the participants through the auspices of the University of Virginia.

The curriculum of the first NEI program was designed to address the basic issues that face police administrators in the performance of their responsibilities. The problems of poverty, the politics of crime, police-media relations, labor relations, affirmative action, and police organizational strategies were considered (see Table VI-6). Group discussions and lectures are the primary teaching techniques that were employed. Herman Kahn, Director of

TABLE VI-6

CURRICULA OF THE FIRST CLASS OF THE NATIONAL EXECUTIVE INSTITUTE: MARCH 25 - SEPTEMBER 12, 1976

Analysis of the National and International Climate

Political, Economic and Social Trends Affecting the National and International Climate; Urban Trends and the Future of the City; Urban Poverty--Problems of the Non-Affluent; Analysis of the Police Chief Executive Project; The Future of Urban Crime and the Criminal Justice System.

Analysis of United States Crime

Juvenile Crime; Political Recognition of Crime and the Formulation of Crime Control Objectives; Correctional Rehabilitation vs. Deterrence.

Police-Media Relations

The Role of Media in the Formation of Public Opinion; Analysis of the Print Media; Media and Law Enforcement; The Public Relations Process.

Police-Labor Relations

Changes and Resolutions of Police Strikes; Variables Affecting the Outcome of Strikes--Case Studies: Impact of the Political Environment on Police Strikes and Labor Relations.

Minority Recruitment; Selection and Promotion

The Effect of Title VII on Future Employee Selection and Promotion.

The Future of Affirmative Action

Analysis of the Efficacy of Affirmative Action; Effects of Affirmative Action on Efforts to "Upgrade the Police Profession"; Workshop--How Can the Profession Attract and Retain Managers for the Future?

Police Organizations

Analysis of Municipal Budgets; Future Organizational Structures; Analysis of Team Concepts and the Matrix Organization.

Source: National Executive Institute, "Program of the National Executive Institute" (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 1976).

the Hudson Institute, members of his professional staff and John Pfalf of the FBI faculty were the instructors. Several guest lecturers were also employed, including James Q. Wilson, Judge Irving Kaufman, and Eric Sevareid.

The Federal Bureau of Investigation covers the costs of transportation, food, lodging, tuition, texts, and other related costs. The first of the four sessions is estimated to have cost $54,000. This includes the contract with the Hudson Institute, travel, meals, honoraria, and texts. It does not include upkeep expenses for the FBI facility, salaries for FBI administrative staff and instructors, or salaries for the Chiefs.

E. COSTS OF THE FBI TRAINING PROGRAMS

This section presents a set of estimates of the costs in fiscal year 1975 of the training provided by the Bureau to state-local law enforcement personnel. The estimates were developed with the assistance of officials in the Finance and Personnel Division of the Office of the Director of the FBI.[8]

The FBI estimates that the agency's total training costs in fiscal year 1975 amounted to $19.8 million, slightly less than 5 percent of its total direct program outlays in that year. Of this amount, the Bureau attributes $3.7 million to entry and in-service training for FBI agents at the Quantico facility. The balance—$16.0 million—is attributable to training provided to state and local law enforcement personnel.[9] The state-local total may, in turn, be broken down among the National Academy: $8.0 million, special courses at the FBI Academy: $2.7 million, and field training: $5.3 million.

1. The National Academy

The FBI pays the full costs of the National Academy and most of the expenses of the students. In addition to the costs of instruction, the FBI pays for the attendees' room, board, laundry and dry cleaning services, and round-trip transportation to and from the Academy. The students' agencies pay their salaries while they attend, and in some instances make available a modest per diem allowance.

As noted earlier, approximately 1,000 students attend the National Academy each year. As the students are on campus for 77 days, a total of 77,000 student-days are offered at the National Academy each year. Of the total estimated costs of $8.0 million for the Academy in fiscal 1975, the costs directly associated with the facility totaled $5.3 million, or $69 per student-day. Given that the typical enrollee at the National Academy is in residence 77 days, the average direct cost per enrollee at the Academy is $5,330.

Two other types of costs are incurred by the FBI on behalf of attendees at the Academy. First, a background investigation of each applicant is conducted. The FBI estimates the total cost of these investigations at slightly less than $2.5 million in fiscal 1975. About 1,300 such investigations are completed each year at an average cost of $1,912. As only 1,000 of those investigated actually end up attending the Academy, the average cost per enrollee is $2,485. The investigations are carried out by FBI field personnel as part of their regular investigative duties and their cost therefore does not appear in the National Academy's budget.

Second, the FBI furnishes round-trip transportation to Quantico for each attendee. These costs are borne by the FBI field office that selected the candidate. The Bureau estimates the total travel costs incurred for National Academy students at $145,000--an average cost per enrollee of $145.

The sum of the three categories of costs accounts for the total estimated cost to the FBI of the National Academy--$8.0 million in fiscal 1975. The average total cost per enrollee is $7,960.

Although not directly relevant to an analysis of FBI outlays, it is important to note that substantial costs are incurred by state and local governments when their officers attend the National Academy. As noted earlier, state and local agencies pay the enrollee's regular salary while he or she is attending the Academy, and some agencies pay modest per diems as well. For the purpose of estimating these costs, assume that the typical attendee's salary is $14,500 per year,[10] that fringe benefits amount to 25 percent of salary, that overtime payments to other personnel incurred to cover essential duties of the enrollee while at the Academy are 10 percent of the enrollee's salary and fringes, and that a per diem of $3 per day is paid to the student. The resulting total cost to each enrollee's agency is $4,458.

Table VI-7 summarizes on a per-student basis the estimates developed in this subsection. The table shows that the total budgetary cost of each student at the FBI National Academy is $12,418. Of this total, the Federal Government pays a bit more than 64 percent, while the *ad hoc* cost-sharing arrangement implicit in the present program results in state and local governments paying slightly less than 36 percent of the costs.

TABLE VI-7

ESTIMATED COST OF EACH STUDENT AT
THE NATIONAL ACADEMY, FY 1975

Item	Cost
Total Cost	$12,418
Cost to the Federal Government, Total	7,960
Direct cost incurred at Academy	5,330
Background investigation	2,485
Transportation	145
Cost to State and Local Governments, Total	4,458
Salary	3,074
Fringe benefits	769
Per diem	231
Overtime to cover student's duties	384

Source: See text.

2. Specialized Courses at the FBI Academy

Students at the special courses use the same facilities as the National Academy. The courses run for periods of from a few days to four weeks, with 5.5 days the average. The cost arrangements are similar to those of the National Academy. The FBI pays the cost of the instruction, transportation, room, board, and laundry and dry cleaning services. In fiscal 1975, the FBI conducted 157 special courses at Quantico for a total of 4,236 attendees, which implies that a total of 23,300 student days were offered in these courses in that year.

Of the $2.7 million total cost of the special courses, the FBI allocates $2.1 million directly to the Quantico facility--approximately $90 per student day. Given that the average student attends for 5.5 days, the average cost for each of the 4,236 students in fiscal 1975 was $494. The other costs for the special schools include only transportation, as background investigations for the attendees are not required. The FBI estimates total transportation costs in fiscal 1975 for attendees at special courses to have been $618,000, or $143 per student. The average total cost to the FBI for each attendee at the special courses was, therefore, $637--$494 in direct costs and $143 in transportation costs.

Assuming an average salary of $12,000 per attendee at the special schools,[11] and other costs to the student's employer calculated as in the case of the National Academy analysis, yields a total cost of $1,001 per attendee (see Table VI-8). In this case, as in that of the National Academy, 64 percent of the cost is paid by the Federal Government and 36 percent by state and local governments.

3. Field Training

The direct costs of the field training program are born by the FBI field offices, which have reported to Washington that a total of $5.3 million was spent in fiscal 1975 for this activity.

TABLE VI-8

ESTIMATED COST PER STUDENT FOR ATTENDANCE AT A ONE-WEEK SPECIAL COURSE AT THE FBI ACADEMY, FY 1975

Item	Cost
Total Cost	$1,001
Cost to the Federal Government, Total	637
Direct cost incurred at Academy	494
Transportation	143
Cost to State and Local Governments, Total	364
Salary	252
Fringe benefits	63
Per diem	17
Overtime to cover student's duties	32

Source: See text.

The FBI estimates that two hours are spent on preparation and travel for each hour of instruction, which implies that a total of 19[illegible] person-years of special-agent time were required to provide the above-mentioned hours of field training instruction.[12] In addition, the FBI directly associates 33 person-years of support clerical time in the field with such training. Assuming a basic salary of about $21,500 for the instructor and $9,000 for the clerical position, and adding slightly more than 30 percent for fringe benefits, the total--$5.3 million--cost of the field training is accounted for.

Unfortunately, an estimate of the number of student-days of field training provided is not available from the FBI. However, an indirect estimate can be derived by assuming that each of the 320,000 state-local personnel involved received three hours of instruction from the special agents. The total number of student-hours of instruction (960,000) in fiscal year 1975 defined by this assumption, divided by 8, yields 120,000 student-days of instruction. This estimate implies that an average of approximately nine students were present at each hour of field training provided by the FBI. The 120,000 figure is 55 percent of the total student days of instruction provided by the FBI to state and local personnel in fiscal 1975. The average cost to the FBI of the field training per student day is, therefore, $45, which compares favorably with the total per-day cost to the FBI of the National Academy ($103) and the special courses offered at Quantico ($116).[13]

As the field training involves costs to the sponsoring agencies that cannot be determined from the data available, the total costs to all levels of government cannot be reasonably estimated. Moreover, because the types of field training situations vary so substantially, no attempt is made here to display the costs of a typical field training program.

4. Summary of the Results

Table VI-9 summarizes the estimated training expenses of the FBI in fiscal year 1975, as discussed in this section. The training of state and local criminal justice personnel accounts for more than four-fifths of the total. The costs of training federal officers (mostly FBI agents) account for the remaining fifth. Nearly half of the outlays for state-local training is attributable to the National Academy.

F. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The FBI Academy performs a unique function in the training of state and local law enforcement officials. It provides students with insights into some of the broader aspects of their positions and facilitates a national interchange of concepts and practices. The new National Executive Institute should stimulate the growth of leadership training and needed exposure to some of the more difficult functional areas which executives must master in pursuing their management responsibilities. It performs the role of a needed

TABLE VI-9

ESTIMATED FBI TRAINING EXPENDITURES, FY 1975

(thousand dollars)

Type of Training	Expenditures
Total Training	$19,759
State and Local Officers, Total	16,012
National Academy	7,960
Special schools	2,711
Field training	5,341
Federal Officers	3,747

Source: See text.

capstone, or national management training institute. It is recommended that the National Executive Institute continue to perform this function for top executives, forming the terminal program for the permanent regional executive training activities recommended in Chapter V of this volume.

CHAPTER VI

NOTES AND REFERENCES

1. The New FBI Academy: "A University for Law Enforcement," reprint from the FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin (July 1972), p. 1

2. The Academy accepts 1,000 candidates per year. In fiscal year 1975 there were 994 graduates, a negligible drop-out rate of only 0.6 percent.

3. Sanford Ungar, FBI (Atlantic-Little Brown, 1976), p. 438

4. The 7 percent figure has been questioned by an FBI official. It is possible that the number is inflated by foreign-student respondents who indicate that they are federal employees. Unfortunately, the FBI does not have an accurate count of the foreign students or the distribution of its students by type of agency.

5. The electives vary from session to session. In January 1976 the following were offered: basic pistol marksmanship, beginner swimming, police baton and disarming techniques, police equipment seminar, preparation of charted enlargements, rappeling and rope rescues, sexual assaults on the person, shotgun training, special martial arts, tactical unit, training administrator unit, transactional analysis in law enforcement, physical processing for latent prints, elementary statistics for police management, financial investigative techniques, intermediate swimming, introduction to explosives and clandestine activities, latent fingerprint photography, hostage negotiations, orientation to library skills, physical fitness, and police arms and maintenance.

6. National Manpower Survey analysis of data in LEEP applications.

7. Letter to Robert W. Rafuse, Jr., of NPA from Eugene W. Walsh, Assistant Director, Finance and Personnel Division (May 14, 1976); and the NMS interviews with members of the staff of the Division.

8. Of which 11/52, or 21.2 percent, is allocable to the National Academy--$3,074.

9. Of which 5.5/260, or 2.1 percent, is allocable to the special schools--$252.

10. Instruction hours times 3, divided by 1,856 (approximate number of working days in a year, assuming 9 holidays and an average of 20 days of leave).

11. Calculated, respectively, as $7,960/77 and $637/5.5.

Part Two

VOLUME V

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PART 2.

VII. LAW ENFORCEMENT TRAINING ACADEMIES 274

A. UTILIZATION OF ACADEMIES BY AGENCY SIZE AND BY STATE 277

1. Distribution of Academy Utilization by Size of Agency 278
2. Distribution of Academies by State 280

B. CHARACTERISTICS OF ACADEMY PROGRAMS 282

1. Duration and Content of Entry-Level Training 283
2. Coverage of Topics in In-Service Training 288
3. Facilities 290
4. Instructors 290
5. Funding Sources 290

C. COMPARISON OF THE CURRENT STATUS OF LAW ENFORCEMENT TRAINING ACADEMIES WITH DESIRED STANDARDS 294

1. Teaching Techniques 294
2. Performance Objectives 298
3. "Stress" Training 301
4. Field Training 303
5. Class Size 308

D. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 309

NOTES AND REFERENCES 313a

VIII. LAW SCHOOLS 314

A. THE HISTORY OF LEGAL EDUCATION FOR ADMISSION TO THE BAR 315

B. PRESENT STATUS OF THE LAW SCHOOL CURRICULUM 318

1. Bar Admission and the Law School Curriculum 318
2. Law Students and Bar Admissions 320
3. Law School Goals and Procedures 321
4. Current Quantitative Status of Criminal Justice in the Law School Curriculum 324
5. Institutional Barriers to Change 327

C. THE DEFENSE AND PROSECUTION PERSPECTIVE ON THE QUALITY OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE LEGAL EDUCATION 330

1. The Quality of the Criminal Justice Curriculum 330

2. A Qualitative "Model" for the Criminal Justice Curriculum 336
3. The Future of the Model Curriculum 342

D. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 343

1. Law Schools, Continuing Legal Education, and Bar Admission 346
2. Prospects for Change 347
3. Recommendations 350

NOTES AND REFERENCES 355

IX. CONTINUING LEGAL EDUCATION FOR CRIMINAL LAW PRACTITIONERS 362a

A. BACKGROUND OF CONTINUING LEGAL EDUCATION IN CRIMINAL LAW 363

B. CURRENT STATUS OF CONTINUING LEGAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS 368

1. The CLE Context for Criminal Law Courses 368
2. Present Needs and Resources of Criminal Law CLE 372
3. Present Status of Criminal Law CLE 382

C. LOOKING TO THE FUTURE: TRENDS IN CLE 384

1. Mandatory CLE 385
2. Specialization 387
3. Trial-Advocate Specialization 389
4. The Legal-Services Delivery System 393

D. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 393

NOTES AND REFERENCES 400

X. PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN CORRECTIONS 407

A. INTRODUCTION 407

B. SOCIAL WORK 408

C. OTHER ACADEMIC PROGRAMS PROVIDING PROFESSIONAL MANPOWER FOR CORRECTIONS 429

1. Psychology 429
2. Sociology/Criminology 432
3. Rehabilitation Counselor. 439

D. VOLUNTEERS AND PROFESSIONALS. 443

E. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 446

NOTES AND REFERENCES 452

APPENDICES 455

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY 552

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PART 2

TABLES

VII-1 Percentage Distributon of Agencies by Type of Law Enforcement Academies Used for Entry-Level Training, by Agency Size, 1975. 279

VII-2 Distribution of Law Enforcement Academies by State/Region and by Type of Academy. 281

VII-3 Duration of Entry-Level Training, by Type of Academy, 1975. 284

VII-4 Mean Number of Hours Provided for Recruit Training, by Academy Size and Type 286

VII-5 Time Allotted to Various Topics in Entry-Level Training Programs, 1975 287

VII-6 Number of Academies Offering In-Service Training, and Number of Courses Offered, by Subject, 1975 289

VII-7 Percentage of Academies with Various Facilities, by Type and Size of Academy, 1975 291

VII-8 Full-Time Instructors as a Percentage of All Instructors, by Agency Type, 1975. 292

VII-9 Percentage of Academies Receiving Funding from State or Federal Sources, by Type of Academy 293

VII-10 Teaching Techniques Used by Law Enforcement Academies, 1965. 295

VII-11 Use of the Lecture Method as the Primary Training Technique, by Subject Area 296

VII-12 Use of Student-Oriented Techniques as Primary Mode of Instruction, by Subject Area. 297

VII-13 Proportion of Academies Utilizing Testing Procedures. . . . 300

VII-14 Percent of Law Enforcement Academies Using Stress Training. 304

TABLE PAGE

VII-15 Percentage of Academies Offering Field Training, by Accademy Size and Type 305

VII-16 Percentage Distribution of the Average Size of Recruit Training Classes, by Type of Academy, 1975 307

VII-17 Length of Training Provided by Academies to New Full-Time Instructors. 310

VIII-1 Bar Examination Requirements in 43 States 320

VIII-2 Incidence of Different Types of Specialized Criminal Justice Courses Among Law Schools. 326

IX-1 1975 CLE Courses Reported to ALI-ABA Catalog and Surve . . . 373

IX-1 Approved Schools of Social Work in the United States, Number of Criminal Justice Related Courses Offered, Number of Field Placements in Criminal Justice, Specialization in Corrections Offered: 1974 410

X-2 Relationship Between the Number of Criminal Justice Courses Offered and the Presence of an Area of Specialization in Corrections in Social Work Schools, Academic Year 1974-75. . 413

X-3 Courses in Social Work Related to Criminal Justice/ Corrections, Indicating a Concentration in Corrections, Academic Year 1974-75. 415

X-4 Numbers and Percentages of Graduate Social Work Students Entering Corrections/ Criminal Justice Agencies for Field Placement, Academic Year 1971-74 417

X-5 Relationship between the Proportion of Students Placed by Social Work Schools in Corrections/Criminal Justice Agencies and the Presence of an Area of Specialization in Corrections in the Academic Program, Academic Year 1973-74 418

X-6 Numbers and Percentages of Graduate Social-Work Students in the Several Areas of Concentration, Academic Year 1972-74. . 422

X-7 Distribution of Second-Year Graduate Social Work Students by Area of Concentration, and by Whether or Not A Concentration in Corrections is Offered: 1974. 423

X-8 Number of Graduate Social Work Degrees Awarded, Academic Years, 1971-74 425

X-9 The Highest Degree Held by Correctional Personnel with A Degree in Higher Education, 1974 427

X-10 American Colleges and Universities Offering Courses in Crime and Delinquency in Departments of Psychology, 1971 . . 430

TABLE		PAGE
X-11	Graduate Programs in Criminlogy/Sociology Related to Criminal Justice: Academic Year 1975-76	434
X-12	Number of Graduate Criminology Programs Receiving Law Enforcement Education Program Funds Academic Years 1972-76	435

CHART		
III-1	CJ Academic Program Administrators' Recommendations for Federal Funding Agencies	117
III-2	CJ Academic Program Administrators' Recommendations for State Funding Agencies and the Funding of LEEP	118
III-3	CJ Academic Program Administrators' Recommendations for the Funding of LEEP	118
V-3	Percent of Law Enforcement and Corrections Executives with College Degrees	219

FIGURE		
VI-1	Local Police Training Schools	262

CHAPTER VII. LAW ENFORCEMENT TRAINING ACADEMIES

Chapter VI of Volume II described and analyzed the duration and content of law enforcement training from the point of view of law enforcement agencies. Current entry-level, in-service and supervisory training was considered by size of agency and by region of the country. Perceptions of training requirements were obtained from the prescriptive literature and from NMS field job analyses. The conclusions of that chapter were as follows:

- There has been considerable growth in entry-level training in the last several years. Virtually all agencies in jurisdictions of 25,000 or more employees offer some entry-level training to new employees. Within the last five years, the duration of training offered to entry-level personnel has increased in almost 80 percent of the agencies surveyed. (For a descriptive history of law enforcement training, see Appendix E.)
- Government funding has played a significant part in the growth of training. More than 50 percent of all law enforcement academies surveyed have received funding from either a state planning agency, a standards and training commission, or from a national or regional LEAA office.
- In 1975, approximately 90 percent of all new recruits received some entry-level training. The agencies that did not provide entry-level training were predominantly small and located in states that are heavily rural.
- Considerable progress is being made in the duration of entry-level training. Approximately 63 percent of all new entrants in 1975 received at least 400 hours of formal training. The 37 percent who received less than 400 hours are concentrated in the small agencies.

- Despite this impressive growth in the duration of entry-level training, the NMS job analysis results imply that serious deficiencies still exist. Current agency personnel report that they learned a majority of their jobs' tasks through on-the-job experience rather than formal training. Trained recruits are rated as deficient in several important areas of knowledge such as "interviewing and eliciting information," "local law and ordinances," and "crisis intervention/dispute settlement."

- These results suggest the need for structured field training and formal classroom training in crisis intervention and other topics relevant to the peace-keeping role. The evidence suggests that there is relatively little structured field training and that the percentage of classroom time devoted to "human values and problems" is somewhat less than has been recommended. Although most agencies offer in-service training of some type, incumbents receive such training infrequently. Only 36 percent of all sworn personnel have ever participated in an in-service training course. Less than 4 percent of all incumbents of responding agencies have received in-service training in the last year.

- The assertion that formal supervisory training should be given to all newly appointed supervisors is supported by the results of the job analysis and of the executive survey. The job analysis results show that the supervisor's job involves more complex tasks and a wider range of skills than does the patrol officer's job. Ninety percent of the law enforcement chief executives surveyed conclude that training is necessary for newly appointed supervisors.

- Despite this consensus, training for newly appointed supervisors is somewhat uncommon. Only 37 percent of agencies surveyed offer such training. The results of the NMS job analysis suggest that even in the case of agencies that provide supervisory training, newly appointed supervisors are not sufficiently prepared.

- Training for executives and mid-level managers is also relatively infrequent. Executives indicate that management training is especially crucial in such functional areas as personnel management, budgeting, and collective bargaining. Only 46 percent of all managers have received specialized in-service training of any kind. (For further information concerning these conclusions, see the set of tables in Appendix 0).

The purpose of this chapter is to consider the characteristics of law enforcement training academies and the qualitative factors that are believed to influence the efficacy of their training programs. A primary source of data for this analysis consists of responses by 236 law enforcement academies to a survey initiated by the National Association of State Directors of Law Enforcement Training (NASDLET), in 1975, in cooperation with the NMS. Two questions will be addressed. How do academies differ? What factors besides duration and content influence the quality of the training they offer?

It is clear that the size of an agency and the extent of its resources are not the only determinants of its ability to provide training. Some states are active participants in the process of law enforcement training. Regional academies have been established in some areas to serve several departments. In several areas vocational institutions and community colleges provide training that individual agencies could not provide for themselves. Few small agencies would be able to provide extensive formal entry-level training programs to their new recruits if it were not for the availability of either an academy affiliated with another agency, a regional or state academy, or an academy instituted by an academic institution. Section A describes the different patterns of utilization of law enforcement academies by agencies' size and by state.

Since agency-affiliated academies are administered by agencies that are generally large and that have considerable resources to devote to training, and because other types of academies are often established to answer the unmet needs of small agencies, it can be hypothesized that there are distinctions in the characteristics of the training programs by type of academy. Section B considers the characteristics (e.g. program duration, content, facilities, number of full-time and part-time instructors) of the law enforcement academies that responded to the NASDLET survey and, where possible, describes variations by academy type.

The length and content of training are, of course, incomplete measures of the sufficiency of training. Section D considers several additional qualitative criteria. The usefulness of various teaching techniques for selected topics and the perceived needs for structured field training, for instructor training, and for performance objectives are reviewed. In each case, current levels are compared to those proposed in prescriptive standards.

A. UTILIZATION OF ACADEMIES BY AGENCY SIZE AND BY STATE

In this section, three broad types of academies are considered. Agency-affiliated academies include those operated by police or sheriffs' departments. Academic affiliates are academies administered by technical and vocational schools or by colleges. The third category includes academies administered by law enforcement agencies or by a regional or state group and utilizing the facilities or some of the teaching staff of an academic institution.

The first subsection considers the relationship between an agency's size and its utilization of the different types of academies. The second subsection describes the patterns of academy utilization that have developed in different states. Section B summarizes the variations in the length, content, facilities and instruction qualifications.

1. Distribution of Academy Utilization by Size of Agency

Agency-affiliated academies provide entry-level training for 57 percent of all law enforcement personnel. State and regional academies are used by agencies employing 36 percent of law enforcement personnel, and the remaining 7 percent are trained at academies affiliated with academic institutions (Table VII-1).

Large agencies (500 or more employees) are almost twice as likely as small agencies (fewer than 75 employees) to utilize an agency-affiliated academy. The large agencies usually have their own academy, but only half of the smaller agencies that use an agency-affiliated academy use thir own academy. Fifty percent of all small agencies but only 21 percent of the large agencies use state and regional academies for entry-level training. Users of academies affiliated with academic institutions are also likely to be the smaller agencies. Eleven percent of the agencies with fewer than 75 employees and 9 percent with between 75 and 99 employees utilize these academies.[1]

State and regional academies and academically affiliated academies train a disproportionately high percentage of recruits from the smallest agencies. Recruits from agencies with fewer than 75 employees account for approximately 34 percent of all trainees. Fifty-one percent of the recruits trained at

TABLE VII-1

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF AGENCIES BY TYPE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT ACADEMIES USED FOR ENTRY-LEVEL TRAINING, BY AGENCY SIZE, 1975

Type of Academy	All Agency Sizes[a]	Number of Employees					
		Under 75	75-99	100-149	150-249	250-499	500 or More
Responding Agencies, Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Law Enforcement Agencies, Total	56.6	39.9	34.0	32.7	35.2	52.7	74.5
Own Agency's Academy	48.2	20.4	23.5	23.3	28.2	49.5	73.5
Other Agency's Academy	8.4	19.5	10.5	9.4	7.0	3.2	1.0
Educational Academies	7.2	10.8	8.5	7.8	7.7	10.5	3.9
State/Regional Academies	36.1	49.2	57.5	59.4	54.9	36.8	21.5

[a] These averages are weighted in proportion to the number of personnel employed within each size category.

Source: NMS Executive Surveys, 1975.

academic-affiliated academies and 47 percent of those trained at state and regional academies, however, come from these small agencies. By contrast, only 24 percent of the recruits trained at agency-affiliated academies come from the small agencies. The reasons for this pattern are clear enough. For the most part, only larger agencies are in a position to train their own personnel, but their academies also train a small number of personnel from other agencies.

The training of personnel other than those associated with the operating agency accounts for only 15 percent of the training done by an agency-affiliated academy. They are limited on the number of trainees from other agencies that they can accommodate. Also, only agencies within a reasonable distance of the agency-affiliated academy would be in a position to use the academy. State/regional and academically affiliated academies most often were opened for the express purpose of providing training to agencies that could neither administer their own training not utilize the training of a nearby academy. The National Advisory Commission strongly recommended the development of regional academies as the only way to provide cost-effective training to jurisdictions that could not otherwise obtain such training.[2]

2. Distribution of Academies by State

Table VII-2 shows considerable variation in the distribution of academies among states. States have anywhere from 1 to 136 academies. Agency-affiliated academies are in the majority in 29 states. Eleven states have a majority of regional or state academies, and eight have a majority of academies affiliated with academic institutions.[3]

A state's configuration of academies reflects its geography, the density of its population, the availability of agency-affiliated academies, and the

TABLE VII-2

DISTRIBUTION OF LAW ENFORCEMENT ACADEMIES BY STATE/REGION AND BY TYPE OF ACADEMY

Census Region and State	All Academies	Type of Academy		
		Agency Affiliated Academies	Regional and State Academies	Academies Affiliated with Academic Institutions
U.S. Total	793	402	140	251
New England	41	33	7	1
Maine	1	0	1	0
New Hampshire	1	0	0	1
Vermont	1	0	1	0
Massachusetts	19	17	2	0
Rhode Island	1	0	1	0
Connecticut	18	16	2	0
Middle Atlantic	44	36	5	3
New York	23	23	0	0
New Jersey	14	9	4	1
Pennsylvania	7	4	1	2
East North Central	165	108	31	26
Ohio	99	87	4	8
Indiana	6	4	1	1
Illinois	33	8	22	3
Michigan	10	2	3	5
Wisconsin	17	7	1	9
West North Central	34	17	15	2
Minnesota	6	4	2	0
Iowa	7	4	3	0
Missouri	2	0	2	0
North Dakota	1	0	1	0
South Dakota	3	1	2	0
Nebraska	4	2	2	0
Kansas	11	6	3	2
South Atlantic	205	68	33	104
Delaware	5	5	0	0
Maryland	15	10	3	2
Virginia	37	17	13	7
West Virginia	15	15	0	0
North Carolina	65	9	2	54
South Carolina	1	0	1	0
Georgia	15	4	10	1
Florida	52	8	4	40
East South Central	27	18	3	6
Kentucky	11	7	1	3
Tennessee	5	5	0	0
Alabama	9	5	1	3
Mississippi	2	1	1	0
West South Central	88	57	18	13
Arkansas	8	6	2	0
Louisiana	6	2	1	3
Oklahoma	19	18	1	0
Texas	55	31	14	10
Mountain	53	27	17	9
Montana	7	4	3	0
Idaho	6	1	1	4
Wyoming	5	3	2	0
Colorado	11	9	2	0
New Mexico	5	3	2	0
Arizona	10	5	1	4
Utah	5	2	2	1
Nevada	4	0	4	0
Pacific	136	38	11	87
Washington	7	7	0	0
Oregon	3	2	1	0
California	115	19	9	87
Alaska	7	6	1	0
Hawaii	4	4	0	0

Source: NASDLET Survey, 1975.

efforts of the law enforcement administrators and planners in the state. Some states, such as North Carolina and Wisconsin, which have a network of state-supported vocational and technical schools, use these for law enforcement training. Similarly, states with an extensive community college system, such as Florida and California, employ them as a base for law enforcement training. Several highly urbanized states, such as New York, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island, depend primarily on agency-affiliated academies. With agency-affiliated academies in existence in these states, there has been little demand for regional and state academies.

The distribution of academies by type within a state does not appear to be related to the extent to which entry-level training is provided. For example, New York, with the highest percentage of trained personnel (91 percent), relies exclusively on agency-affiliated academies, but West Virginia, whose 15 academies are all agency-affiliated, has one of the lowest percentages of trained personnel (53 percent).

Ninety-one percent of the sworn personnel in California, which utilizes academically affiliated institutions primarily, has received training, but only 53 percent of the sworn personnel in North Carolina has received such training.

B. CHARACTERISTICS OF ACADEMY PROGRAMS

The purpose of this section is to analyze the results of the National Association of State Directors of Law Enforcement Training (NASDLET) survey with respect to the length and content of training offered, the distribution and education of instructors, academy facilities, and sources of funding. Where possible and relevant these variables are reported differentially by academy type and size.

The NASDLET survey was sent to more than 800 agencies or institutions that were believed to make up the universe of law enforcement academies. The survey was completed by 236 academies in 45 states. Almost 50 of the recipients of survey forms replied that they no longer administered law enforcement training. Since the survey data include responses from only approximately one-third of the law enforcement academies, which trained approximately 45 percent of the recruits that were trained in 1974, there is no assurance that the responses are representative of the universe of law enforcement academies.[4]

The only comparison that can be made with other sources of data is with respect to the length of entry-level training. The NMS executive survey data indicate that the approximate mean length of training recruits receive is 387 hours. The mean length of training received by recruits of agencies responding to the NASDLET sample is 410 hours. Although it is not known whether the responding agencies accurately mirror the universe of all academies, we have answered that the training variables among types and sizes of academies, are broadly indicative of variations that exist in the universe of such academies.

1. Duration and Content of Entry-Level Training

Table VII-3 shows that average duration of entry-level training offered by the responding academies in 1975 was 415 hours. Agency-affiliated academies offered an average of 494 hours. Regional and state academies provided 382 hours; academically affiliated academies offered 290 hours. Fifty-four percent of the agency-affiliated academies, but only 22 percent of the regional/state academies and 15 percent of the academic affiliates, provided 440 or more hours of entry-level training.

TABLE VII-3

DURATION OF ENTRY-LEVEL TRAINING, BY TYPE OF ACADEMY, 1975

Type of Academy	Mean Course Length, Hours	Total	Percentage Distribution				
			Less Than 160 Hours	160-279 Hours	280-359 Hours	360-439 Hours	440 or More Hours
Academies, Total (n=209)	415	100.0	5.3	24.9	23.4	10.1	36.4
Agency Affiliates (n=105)	494	100.0	.3	16.2	17.1	9.5	54.3
Academic Affiliates (n=53)	291	100.0	3.8	37.8	33.9	9.4	15.1
Regional/State Academies (n=51)	382	100.0	11.8	29.4	25.5	11.8	21.5

Note: Detail may not add to total due to rounding.

Source: NASDLET Survey of Law Enforcement Academies, 1975.

Although the size of the academies appears to be somewhat related to the duration of the entry-level training they offer, it is clear from the information displayed in Table VII-4 that academy size does not fully explain the variations in length of training. Within agency-affiliated academies and academic affiliates the mean duration of training increases as the size increases. Nearly the opposite pattern is true of state and regional academies. There is considerable variation in the mean duration of training among academy types within size groups. For example, among academies that trained between 25 and 49 recruits in the previous year, the mean duration of training offered by academy affiliates was 242 hours, while state and regional academies of that size offered an average of 501 hours. Similar disparities exist in all size groups.

It can reasonably be hypothesized that the major factor influencing the duration of training is the size of the agencies served. As described above, agency-affiliated academies serve agencies that are considerably larger, on average, than the agencies served by state and regional academies. Academically affiliated agencies are third with respect to the average size of agencies that they serve.

Table VII-5 shows the classroom time allotted to each of 12 training topics. Some training time was allotted for these topics in at least 95 percent of the academies. The one exception is detention, which was covered as a topic in only 65 percent of the academies surveyed. It appears that the topics concerning the essential procedural aspects of the job (legal subjects, criminal evidence and investigative procedures, and patrol procedures) are allocated the most classroom time, followed by skill training (weapons, physical training, and emergency medical procedures). The topics covered most briefly

TABLE VII-4

MEAN NUMBER OF HOURS PROVIDED FOR RECRUIT TRAINING, BY ACADEMY SIZE AND TYPE

Academy Size and Type	Mean Number of Hours
All Academies, Total	414.8
1-24 Recruits	339.7
25-49	385.6
50-99	444.9
100-199	517.1
200 or more	416.2
Agency Affiliates, Total	493.5
1-24 Recruits	380.3
25-49	426.1
50-99	532.5
100-199	697.8
200 or more	637.3
College Affiliates, Total	290.2
1-24 Recruits	241.3
25-49	242.1
50-99	291.3
100-199	398.3
200 or more	428.8
State and Regional Academies, Total	382.1
1-24 Recruits	425.3
24-49	501.2
50-99	441.3
100-199	377.2
200 or more	295.4

Source: NASDLET Survey of Law Enforcement Academies, 1975.

TABLE VII-5

TIME ALLOTTED TO VARIOUS TOPICS IN ENTRY-LEVEL TRAINING PROGRAMS, 1975

Training Topics	Mean Duration of Course Coverage in Hours	Percentage Distribution of Time
All Topics	414.8	100.0
Legal Subjects	56.4	13.6
Criminal Evidence and Investigative Procedures	52.3	12.6
Patrol Procedures	48.1	11.6
Traffic	48.1	11.6
Weapons	42.3	10.2
Physical Training	40.3	9.7
Emergency Medical Procedures	33.6	8.1
Community and Human Values and Problems	29.9	7.2
Orientation and Introduction to Criminal Justice System	26.1	6.3
Agency Policies and Procedures	20.2	4.9
Juvenile	11.2	2.7
Detention	6.2	1.5

Source: NASDLET Survey of Law Enforcement Academies, 1975.

include those concerning the role of the police officer and his place in the community and the society (community and human values and problems), orientation, and introduction to the criminal justice system and to juvenile matters.[5]

Five of these topics were examined to determine the variations in the percentage of time allotted to each by academy type and size. Very little variability is shown among academy size and type groups, the only consistent pattern is in the percentage of course time allotted to physical training. The percentage of time for physical training increased in academies with fewer than 25 recruits (6.6 percent) compared to those that train 200 or more recruits (11.9 percent).

2. Coverage of Topics in In-Service Training

The discussion in Chapter VI of Volume II indicated that in-service training is offered relatively infrequently but that academies are playing an increasing role in the provision of such training.

Of the 237 academies responding to the NASDLET survey, 206 administered at least one in-service training course, and--in aggregate--provided a total of 1,695 in-service courses in 1975. (See Table VII-6.) The most frequently offered topics were firearms, criminal investigation, and criminal law. Fifty-two percent of the courses pertained to patrol and investigative procedures, and mainly dealt with specialized aspects of these subjects. Nine percent of the coursework related to supervision and management training. Crime prevention and crisis intervention, two topics that have developed within the last ten years, were offered in 40 and 44 of these academies, respectively, in 1975.

TABLE VII-6

NUMBER OF ACADEMIES OFFERING IN-SERVICE TRAINING, AND NUMBER OF COURSES OFFERED, BY SUBJECT, 1975

Topic	Number of Courses Offered	Percentage of All Topics Offered
All Academies	237	--
All academies offering in-service training	206	--
All in-Service Training Courses	1,695	100.0%
Patrol Procedures, Total	455	26.8
Advanced Officers Training	64	3.7
Breathalyzer	80	4.7
Communications	64	3.8
Crime Prevention	40	2.4
Driving While Under the Influence (DWI)	24	1.4
Firearms	115	6.8
Traffic and Accident Investigation	68	4.0
Investigative Procedures, Total	436	25.7
Burglary	35	2.1
Criminal Investigation	99	5.8
Drugs	79	4.7
Fingerprints	59	3.5
Homicide	38	2.2
Organized Crime	22	1.3
Photography	46	2.7
Polygraph	9	0.5
Sex Crimes	49	2.9
Supervisory and Management Training, Total	147	8.7
Executive Training	20	1.2
Basic Supervision	69	4.1
Advanced Supervision	26	1.5
Mid-management	22	1.9
Emergency Situations, Total	168	9.9
Bombs	51	3.0
Crowd & Riot Control	45	2.7
Hostage Negotiations	34	2.0
Special Weapons & Tactics (SWAT)	38	2.2
Human Values & Problems, Total	175	10.3
Community Relations	63	3.7
Crisis Intervention	44	2.6
Juvenile Delinquency	47	2.8
Minority Sensitivity Training	21	1.2
Instructor Training, Total	167	9.9
Firearms Instructor	115	6.9
Instructor	52	3.1
Other, Total	147	8.7
Criminal Law	97	5.7
Jailer	26	1.5
Spouse's Training	24	1.4

Source: NASDLET/NMS Survey of Law Enforcement Training Academies 1975.

3. Facilities

Most of the responding academies possess the physical facilities for training, a library, and access to an indoor gymnasium. Although 58 percent of all academies have a building reserved for them, only 40 percent of college-affiliated academies have such a structure. Seventy-seven percent of the largest academies (200 or more recruits in 1975), but only 39 percent of the smallest academies (fewer than 25 recruits), have an academy building. Predictably, regional and state academies are much more likely to have residential facilities than are the other two types of academies (Table VII-7).

4. Instructors

The NASDLET survey responses indicate that law enforcement academies rely heavily on part-time instructors. Only 21 percent of all instructors at responding academies were full-time, and 56 percent of the 206 academies reported having no full-time instructors. Among the major categories of academies, full-time staff increased about one percent at agency academies and at state or regional academies, but by only 8 percent at academies affiliated with academic institutions.

The major reasons advanced for the extensive reliance on part-time staff, in the course of NMS field visits were: (1) the small size and irregular scheduling of academy training, in many institutions, and (2) preference for use of specialists, particularly in teaching specialized in-service courses.

5. Funding Sources

Respondents to the NASDLET survey were asked to indicate whether their academies received funding from either a state planning agency, a state's standards and training commission, or a national or regional office of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration in the last year. It should be

TABLE VII-7

PERCENTAGE OF ACADEMIES WITH VARIOUS FACILITIES, BY TYPE AND SIZE OF ACADEMY, 1975

Type and Size of Academy	Physical Structure Devoted to Training	Law Enforcement Library	Access to Indoor Gymnasium	Residential Facilities
All Respondents	58.3	72.6	57.8	27.4
Type of Academy				
Agency Academies	59.2	73.1	55.8	14.1
Academic Affiliates	40.4	72.5	68.5	15.1
Regional and State Academies	56.9	82.4	62.7	52.9
Size of Academy (Number of Recruits)				
Less than 25	39.1	70.2	53.2	8.5
25-49	37.5	37.5	47.9	8.3
50-99	60.0	76.0	48.0	38.0
100-199	68.8	75.0	78.1	34.4
200 or more	76.7	86.7	75.9	35.5

Source: NASDLET Survey of Law Enforcement Academies, 1975.

TABLE VII-8

FULL-TIME INSTRUCTORS AS A PERCENTAGE OF ALL INSTRUCTORS, BY AGENCY TYPE, 1975

	Mean Number of Full-Time Instructors	Full-Time Instructors as a Percentage of All Instructors
All Respondents	4.3	21.2
Agency Academies	5.9	26.6
Academic Affiliates	1.7	8.3
Regional and State Academies	4.2	24.0

Source: NASDLET Survey of Law Enforcement Academies, 1975.

noted that the responses do not indicate how much money was received or whether the funding was for general operating expenses or for a special program.

As shown in Table VII-9, 40 percent of all academies received funding, from at least one of these sources, with the proportions ranging from 51 percent, for regional and state academies, and 43 percent, for agency academies, to only 25 percent for academic affiliates.

TABLE VII-9

PERCENTAGE OF ACADEMIES RECEIVING FUNDING FROM STATE OR FEDERAL SOURCES, BY TYPE OF ACADEMY

Academy Type	Percentage Receiving Funding From:			
	Any of These Sources	State Planning Agencies	State Standards and Training Commissions	LEAA Funding
All Respondents	40.3	15.1	18.9	18.5
Agency Academies	43.1	14.7	21.6	20.6
Academic Affiliates	24.5	5.7	13.2	13.2
Regional/State Academies	51.0	25.5	19.6	19.6

Source: NASDLET Survey of Law Enforcement Academies, 1975.

C. COMPARISON OF THE CURRENT STATUS OF LAW ENFORCEMENT TRAINING ACADEMIES WITH DESIRED STANDARDS

The purpose of this section is to consider prescriptive standards that have been proposed as ways to make law enforcement training more effective. Standards for innovative teaching techniques, field training, instructor training, desired class size, and the use of performance objectives are compared with current practice as indicated by the NASDLET survey.

1. Teaching Techniques

During the past several decades, there have been many innovations in the development of educational methods. New teaching techniques strive to increase the active participation of the trainee in the educational experience and, when possible, to enable individual trainees to progress at their own pace. Since the concept of training implies the goal of behavioral change, it would seem appropriate for the police to adopt the more experimental training techniques, such as programmed instruction, role playing, simulation, and case study for their law enforcement academies.

In 1965, a survey of training academies completed by the National Council on Crime and Delinquency revealed that the lecture method was the predominant mode of instruction used in police academies (Table VII-10).

In commenting on this reliance upon conventional lecture methods, the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice noted in 1967 that,

> Most training courses are taught almost exclusively by lecture method, even though the limitations of such instruction have long been recognized by professional training directors and educators.[6]

In 1973 the National Advisory Commission on Standards and Goals recommended the adoption of student-oriented instruction methods to increase the trainees' level of participation and receptivity. The Commission further recommended

TABLE VII-10

TEACHING TECHNIQUES USED BY LAW ENFORCEMENT ACADEMIES, 1965

Technique	Percent
Lecture and discussion	96.3
Audiovisual aids	62.4
Simulation	41.3
Operational practice	33.9
Field visits	21.1
Discussion	17.4

Source: Survey of Law Enforcement Training Academies, National Council on Crime and Delinquency, 1965.

that the lecture method should be kept to a minimum and that at least one of the following teaching techniques should be included in training sessions of one hour or longer:

-- role playing, situation simulation, group discussion, individual reading and research projects, and individual trainee response systems;

-- audiovisual aids to promote realism;

-- self-paced, individualized instruction methods for appropriate subject matter.

The National Advisory Commission concluded that:

> The police task is becoming so complex that learning by rote is no longer satisfactory. . . . The more a person participates in an incident, the better he becomes in handling it, providing his actions are accompanied by effective critiques.[7]

Table VII-11, however, indicates that the lecture method continues to be the primary mode of instruction for nearly all subjects. Only in areas related to physical conditioning and firearms are other techniques used more frequently.

TABLE VII-11

USE OF THE LECTURE METHOD AS THE PRIMARY TRAINING TECHNIQUE, BY SUBJECT AREA

Subject Area	Percent
Orientation and introduction to the criminal justice system	92.8
Agency policy and procedure	86.9
Legal subjects	86.0
Juvenile	86.5
Patrol procedure	64.0
Criminal evidence/investigative procedure	70.7
Community and human values and problems	64.2
Traffic	64.6
Physical training	14.9
Emergency medical treatment	41.3
Weapons	16.4

Source: NASDLET Survey of Law Enforcement Academies, 1975.

In one recent study, 117 training directors not affiliated with law enforcement judged the following instructional techniques to be most effective in the categories listed below.

- -- Knowledge acquisition - programmed instruction, case study
- -- Knowledge retention - programmed instruction, case study
- -- Problem-solving skills - case study, gaming
- -- Interpersonal skills - sensitivity training, role playing
- -- Attitude change - sensitivity training, role playing
- -- Participant acceptance - discussion method, case study[8]

While these findings may not be totally applicable to police training, they do form a basis for comparison with the extent to which academies use these student-oriented techniques, as shown in Table VII-12.

TABLE VII-12

USE OF STUDENT-ORIENTED TECHNIQUES AS PRIMARY MODE OF INSTRUCTION, BY SUBJECT AREA

(Percent of Academies Using Specified Techniques)

Subject Area	Group Discussion	Programmed Instruction	Role Playing/Simulation	Audio visual Aids	Operational Practice	Case Study	Individual Research	Gaming
Agency policy and procedure	8.0	1.4	-	0.5	0.9	-	-	-
Legal subjects	6.6	0.9	0.4	0.4	0.9	4.8	-	-
Juvenile	8.6	1.4	1.4	0.9	0.9	0.5	-	-
Patrol procedures	5.8	1.3	4.4	11.1	12.4	-	-	-
Criminal evidence/Investigative procedures	4.4	1.3	6.1	3.5	12.7	0.9	-	0.4
Community & human values & problems	22.6	-	9.8	3.1	-	0.4	-	-
Traffic	2.7	0.9	4.4	4.8	22.6	-	-	-
Physical training	-	3.3	6.5	0.5	69.3	-	0.5	4.7
Emergency medical treatment	3.6	3-1	5.8	7.2	39.0	-	-	-
Weapons	-	3.1	1.8	0.4	77.4	-	-	0.9

Source: NASDLET Survey of Law Enforcement Academies, 1975.

Some tentative conclusions can be suggested from examining these data. If attitudinal changes and interpersonal skills are most successfully accomplished through sensitivity training or role playing, then it may be likely that the 64 percent of academies which rely on the lecture method for training in human values and problems may not be doing the most effective job possible. Similarly, if problem-solving skills are best developed through case study and gaming, this same observation applies to the fact that only 1.3 percent of the academies use these two methods as primary methods of instruction in criminal evidence/ investigative procedure.

A panel of law enforcement training experts, convened by NMS in 1976, felt that the lack of the newer teaching methods in academies was indeed a serious problem. The panel felt that the development of improved teaching techniques and materials should be a priority for action, and that instructors should be trained to utilize more innovative training techniques and rely far less on lectures. Their conclusions coincided with an early observation made by James Ahern, former New Haven police chief:

> Police departments should be hungry for the very latest innovations in educational theory and should be made capable of experimenting with them and adapting them to their own uses. . . .[9]

2. Performance Objectives

The National Advisory Commission recommended that law enforcement academies define course content and student evaluation according to performance objectives.[10] Performance objectives state the expected end result to the trainee and specify the criteria for acceptable performance. When a minimum acceptable level of demonstrated ability is stated, a standard is created by which training programs can be evaluated. Criteria for acceptable performance may include time limits for completion, a minimum number of correct responses, correct application of principles, or identification of principles. A reliable and accurate measurement technique is essential to the application of performance objectives.[11]

Most entry-level training is based upon the assumption that certain skills are necessary for basic police job demands. Little attention has been given, however, to the behavioral changes that the agency, supervisor, or community recognize as a demonstration of successful training. It seems important that this basic idea be closely examined before making costly increases in the length or content of entry-level training.

The NMS panel of law enforcement training specialists supported the intergration of performance objectives into academy curricula. They strongly preferred the statement of behavioral or performance objectives to a sample allowance of numbers of training content categories. They suggested that performance objectives are best introduced through an individualized or modularized program of instruction.

Testing techniques should be improved if performance objectives are introduced into a training program. While it has not been possible to estimate the proportion of academies that have adopted performance objectives, Table VII-13 presents some indication of the proportion that have not.

It appears that the principal method of testing is the graded paper and pencil test with 93 percent of the academies responding that this technique was used in all or most of their courses. The simulation (or performance) test was used much less often; only approximately 20 percent of the academies used this technique frequently. However, it is possible that academies may have interpreted "simulation" as only applicable to operational skills such as weapons or defense techniques, rather than expanding the definition to include such possible performance objectives as correctly filling out a report correctly or identifying and listing evidential items rather than merely listing the rules of evidence collection. The use of instructor or peer ratings would also decrease if performance objectives were utilized. Instructor and peer ratings are subjective evaluation techniques, whereas the statement of performance objectives necessitates specificity and objectivity.

Another indication that performance objectives may not be widely adopted is that only 49 percent of the academies responded that they have identified the specific skills and competencies that an effective law enforcement officer needs in their own jurisdictions. Similarly, only 49 percent responded that they had developed ways of measuring these skills and competencies during training. If half of the responding academies have not identified the necessary skills and competencies of police officers or formulated a way of measuring them during training, it is not likely that performance objectives are intergral to their training programs.

TABLE VII-13

PROPORTION OF ACADEMIES UTILIZING
TESTING PROCEDURES

Testing Technique	Used in All Courses	Used in Most Courses	Used in Some Courses	Never Used
Graded paper and pencil	37.0	56.4	6.6	---
Simulation (performance) tests	2.9	17.9	71.5	7.7
Instructor ratings	30.8	18.9	33.3	16.9
Peer ratings	6.0	4.5	23.1	66.3

Source: NASDLET Survey of Law Enforcement Academies 1975.

Although performance objectives are widely used to evaluate the merits and achievements of other operational projects, the approach is not common to entry-level training. This would suggest that a valuable contribution of future Federal training assistance in this area would be the early development of model performance objectives for a set of the most critical skills that a law enforcement recruit needs. Such a model could be made adaptable for local use at training academies.

3. "Stress" Training

Few who are knowledgeable about law enforcement would deny that a certain amount of stress is inherent in the job. The police officer is responsible for critical decision making, sometimes under life-endangering circumstances. He must often act as a counselor to people in trouble and give support during times of crisis. In addition, the officer can be a target of hostility for culturally differing groups.

Stress is defined as an "imbalance between an individual's perceptions of environmental demands and his response capabilities under conditions where failure to meet demands implies important (perceived) consequences."[12]

If stress is indeed inherent in the various roles played by the police officer then the issue becomes how to train the recruit to perform most effectively under stressful conditions. Some research has indicated that introducing elements of stress into the entry-level training program can help.

The philosophy underlying programs that introduce stress into their training is that conditions during the training should simulate actual job conditions. If the job is stressful, then the training must be stressful. The following statement summarizes this school of thought.

> Training in the sense of deliberate practice in performance of correct responses appears to be an unmixed blessing with respect to alleviation

of stress effects and has been highly recommended as a remedy for potential stresses in space missions, civil defense, community disasters and other real life situations.[13]

According to its proponents, a recruit enrolled in such a program will be revealed as he really is and so the ways that he will cope with stress on the job can be evaluated. Individuals generally adapt to stress in three ways: agression, compromise, or withdrawal.[14] It would be undesirable for a police officer to act agressively or in a withdrawn manner; if a trainee reveals either of these traits, perhaps he should not continue; a trainee who showed the capacity to compromise would be more desirable.[15] To observe the trainee under stress, an academy might develop procedures to measure reaction time and proficiency under pressure. In addition to improving an officer's capabilities under stress, a secondary gain is the group cohesiveness and cooperation that result when stress is applied to a group by an external source.[16] The Los Angeles County Sheriffs' Academy has developed a program that is prototypical of stress training. Stress is artificially introduced by means of:

(1) a militaristic atmosphere where strict formalities are observed
(2) unpredictable demands made of the recruit with regard to his expected behavior;
(3) recruit-instructor relationships characterized by relative positions of superiority-inferiority;
(4) unpredictable application of pressure;
(5) verbal harassment, designed confusion, criticism, physical fatigue, status uncertainty, punishment, inconsistent behavior.[17]

The Los Angeles Sheriffs' Academy Program concluded that stress training is a more effective test of emotional stability than a battery of psychometric tests.[18]

Training that is not stressful has, however, been the more typical approach used by regional schools, local programs, institutes, short courses, and universities and colleges.[19] These programs have included little artifically induced stress.

A study conducted by Howard Earle hypothesized that stress training for persons in authoritarian roles, such as police, leads to a higher level of job satisfaction and a higher level of performance acceptability. The evidence of the study, however, negated this hypothesis and an alternative conclusion was drawn. Earle concluded that "non-stress trained subjects displayed a higher level of performance proficiency in the field, a higher level of job satisfaction and a higher level of performance acceptability by persons served."[20]

Table VII-14 shows the percentage distribution of certain elements commonly present in stress training. According to the NASDLET survey, stress is introduced in a relatively small proportion of law enforcement academies. Only 14 percent said that stress was always introduced while 35 percent responded that expectations for a recruit's behavior were never designed to exceed the trainee's capabilities.

The evidence regarding the value of stress training is inconclusive. The data obtained from the NASDLET survey tend to indicate that the more acceptable stress situations in the traditional academy's mode are giving way to the nonstress, in which instruction is likely to occur in a more relaxed atmosphere.

4. Field Training

Law enforcement experts have long emphasized the importance of field training in bridging the gap between the ideas presented at the police academy and the realities of the practitioner's experience. "Reality shock" has

TABLE VII-14

PERCENT OF LAW ENFORCEMENT ACADEMIES USING STRESS TRAINING

	Always	Sometimes	Never
Required performance is designed to exceed student capabilities in order to measure ability to function under stress	13.6	51.2	35.2
Instructor-student relationship is formal	12.1	53.3	34.6
Demerit system used	16.0	12.7	71.2
Marching and drill are requirements	20.6	23.4	56.1
Students are required to stand while addressing the instructor	13.7	20.3	66.0

Source: NASDLET Survey of Law Enforcement Academies, 1975.

often been cited as a problem of police training. Much of the academy's formal training seems to be lost when the officer goes into the field--the new officer, confronted with reality, often adopts the informal practices of experienced police officers, which may negate a great deal of his academy training.[21]

In 1973 the Peterson Commission strongly recommended that field training be integrated into police training programs:

> . . . an effective field training program can provide the necessary support to help [the officer] develop self-confidence and absorb the cultural shock from citizen to officer and the reality shock from formal training to field experience.[22]

The Commission felt that following the basic recruit training program a minimum of four months should be spent in several field training experiences.[23] This would not only cushion "reality shock" but could help establish the direction and success of future job performance.

In spite of a consensus stressing the importance of field training, many academies do not offer a formal structured field training program. The survey found that only slightly more than one-third of all responding law enforcement academies provide field training either within the academy or by coordinating their training with a field training program given elsewhere (Table VII-15). Over half of the academies affiliated with law enforcement agencies provide field training for their recruits. Only 25 percent of the regional and state academies, and only 17 percent of the academies affiliated with academic institutions provide or coordinate field training programs.

Only the quantity of field training programs was measured by the NMS questionnaire. The literature however, reveals that a quality problem is sometimes present, and what is described as "field training" is often inadequate and poorly managed. Wasserman and Couper have pointed out that:

> . . . Field training is rarely formal, often poorly conceptualized and usually pitifully meager. So called field-training officers have no special teacher training, nor do they demonstrate any particular skills. Field training experiences are very short and trainees are given little if any opportunity to reflect on, discuss, and understand their experiences.[24]

NMS field visits discovered that structured field training programs were infrequently provided. In lieu of a structured and planned training sequence, some experiential training did exist without much structure or planning but with fairly close supervision. In other instances, experiential training was provided prior to academy training by having recruits ride in patrol cars with experienced officers.

The NMS panel of law enforcement training specialists agreed that field

TABLE VII-15

PERCENTAGE OF ACADEMIES OFFERING FIELD TRAINING, BY ACADEMY SIZE AND TYPE

Type of Academy	All Academies	Number of Recruits Trained, 1974				
		1-24	25-49	50-99	100-199	200 or more
All Respondents	36.1	38.3	29.0	42.0	39.4	29.0
Agency Academies	50.4	53.6	31.0	60.0	57.1	55.5
College Affiliates	17.3	6.7	16.7	14.3	50.0	20.0
Regional/State	25.4	50.0	16.7	36.4	15.4	23.5

Source: NASDLET Survey of Law Enforcement Academies, 1975.

training programs were often not as effective and purposeful as they could be. The panelists noted that field training is often indifferently structured and sometimes suffers from a lack of strong management support. They also encountered problems in recruiting good officers to teach the program, since experienced police officers do not find this a particularly desirable position and some consider it dangerous. The panelists noted that it was difficult to build incentives into the field instructor position without the risk of attracting inappropriate officers. They recommended that field training be formalized, that its instructors be given special training and increased status, and that the programs be given strong management support.

The combined results of the survey, field visits, and panel findings indicate that field training programs are a long way, both quantitatively and qualitatively, from being the well-supervised, well-integrated programs envisioned by the Peterson Commission and other expert groups.

5. Class Size

Most educators and trainers agree that the learning environment is enhanced when class size is limited to 20. While the Peterson Commission recommended 20 as preferable, it suggested that classes be restricted to a maximum of 25 trainees.[25] The NMS found, however, that only half of the responding academies are meeting this standard (Table VII-16).

TABLE VII-16

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE AVERAGE SIZE OF RECRUIT TRAINING CLASSES, BY TYPE OF ACADEMY, 1975

Type of Academy	Total	Fewer Than 25 Recruits	26-50 Recruits	More Than 50 Recruits
All Respondents (n=203)	100.0	50.7	43.3	5.9
Agency Affiliates (n=102)	100.0	56.9	39.2	3.9
Regional/State Academies (n=47)	100.0	30.6	55.1	14.3
Academic Affiliates (n=52)	100.0	57.7	40.4	1.9

Source: NASDLET Survey of Law Enforcement Academies, 1975.

Since the larger academies are likely to represent more students overall, probably only about 50 percent of all recruits are in classes of optimal size. This may be one reason for the considerable reliance on the lecture method in police academies and less emphasis on newer teaching technologies that rely upon more individualized student participation.

The category of state and regional academies is both least likely to meet the optimal standard and most likely to have classes of 50 or more.

Agency-affiliated academies and college-affiliated academies do better in reaching the desired standard, but with more than 40 percent below standard, the room for improvement is pronounced.

The difference between regional/state academies and others can be explained, at least in part, by the fact that these academies have a larger volume of recruits. Last year the mean number of recruits trained in regional and state academies was 179 while for agency affiliates and college affiliates it was 75 and 66, respectively.

6. Instructor Training

One of the most important factors in assuring the quality of any training program is the quality of its instructors. Selection of effective instructors should be based upon academic qualifications, experience, instructional skills, proficiency in the subject matter, and potential credibility with the recruits.[26] In addition, both the President's Commission and the Peterson Commission recommended that the instructors receive no less than 80 hours of additional training (40 hours for coaches in field training). The President's Commission suggested that an 80-hour course be taught by "professional educators" to "ensure that department instructors are qualified to teach in a training academy."[27] The Peterson Commission was somewhat more specific and recommended that the instructors be certified by the state. The Commission felt that instructor development "should emphasize education philosophy and psychology, instruction methods and their relationship to subject matter, fundamentals of training program development and feedback consciousness."[28]

The data collected from the NASDLET survey of law enforcement academies indicate that 83 percent of the law enforcement academies require that their instructors be certified and 17 percent do not. Of those academies requiring certification, 22 percent require certification by the State Department of Education, 68 percent require certification by the State Training Commission, and 9 percent are certified by other agencies.

In addition to the training required by the certifying agencies, some academies arrange periods of formal orientation of varying lengths for their new full-time instructors (as indicated in Table VII-17).

In spite of the apparent progress in the number of certified instructors available to law enforcement academies, the NMS panel of law enforcement trainers felt that many instructor development programs are still inadequate. The dominance of the lecture mode in the classroom indicates that instructor training is not as innovative and constructive as it could be. The panelists also expressed some difficulty in finding instructors competent to teach in the area of human values and problems, and they cited credibility with the recruits as a real concern. In light of these problems, some of which stem from the strong practitioner origin of many current instructors, panelists vigorously recommended the establishment of strong instructor development programs as a priority for action.

D. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of the NASDLET survey are summarized below.

- Agency affiliated academies are the largest single sources of entry-level training for law enforcement officers, providing such training to agencies which employ 57 percent of law enforcement employees. About 75 percent of all agencies with 500 or more employees use their own academies, whereas smaller agencies rely mainly on state or regional academies, or—to a much lesser extent—on academies of other agencies or those affiliated with educational institutions.

TABLE VII-17

LENGTH OF TRAINING PROVIDED BY ACADEMIES TO NEW FULL-TIME INSTRUCTORS

Length	Percent
1-2 days	10.5
3-4 days	3.0
5-9 days	21.1
10 or more days	26.2

Source: NASDLET Survey of Law Enforcement Academies, 1975.

- States vary considerably in the number and types of academies they utilized. Differences in degree of urbanization in availability of agency affiliated agencies, in availability of community educational resources and in state or local training policies explain some of these variations.

- The NAC standard for law enforcement training is 400 hours. Agency-affiliated training averages 494 hours; regional and state academies training, 382 hours; and academically-affiliated training, 290 hours. In agency-affiliated and academically affiliated academies, the duration of training increases as the size of the group increases. Nearly the opposite pattern is true of state and regional academies.

Subject coverage gives priority to patrol procedures, investigative methods, legal subjects, and criminal evidence, followed by weapons training emergency and medical procedures, and physical training. Less emphasis recommended by national commissions is given to the place of the officer in the community and to juvenile matters, which include preponderance of the arrest activity.

- Academies play a considerable role in in-service training. Nearly 9 out of 10 of those surveyed offer at least one in-service course. The most frequently offered are criminal law, criminal investigations, and firearms. Nine percent of the academies offer supervision and management training.

- Only 21 percent of the law enforcement instructors had full-time teaching positions. Academically-affiliated academies rely almost exclusively on part-time instructors. Eighty percent of law enforcement academies require instructor training of 5 to 10 days or more. However, instructors do not appear to be receiving training in some of more critical areas of human values and problems. This may be because of emphasis or it may be due to the lack of instructors qualified to teach in these areas.

- Despite the heavy emphasis given to field training in the Peterson Commission, this training is provided by only 35% of the academies. When it is provided, it involves either direct academy supervision or is coordinated with field training given elsewhere. These programs apparently need better organization, including use of coaches instructor training (as advocated by NAC), and management support.

- Only half of the academies meet the desirable standard of 25 trainees per class. State and regional academies are most likely to have classes of 50 or more because they have a larger volume of recruits.

- Forty percent of the agencies receive funding from state and federal agencies, state fund planning agencies 15.1%, state standards and training commissions fund 18.9%, and LEAA funds 18.5%. Academic affiliates receive only 5.7% of available funds from state planning agencies. These sources of funding remain critical to the operation of training academies.

- Although instructional technology has moved rapidly toward more diverse means of functional presentation, the lecture method remains predominant in academies (93%). Despite commission advocacy of performance testing, academies also remain wedded to the paper and pencil test (93%) with 20% reporting the use of performance testing.

- The high crime rate among juveniles and the small amount of course work in recruit training allocated to special law enforcement problems associated with juveniles appear to be incongruent. It is recommended that LEAA arrange for the development of prototype courses, or course components, on the subject for use by law enforcement academies. This training package would include not only pertinent subject matter reflecting situational conditions, but would also suggest instructional methodologies and provide supplementary training materials needed to produce high quality instruction. It is further recommended that this package be tried experimentally at various academies and in several strategically located areas, to afford the opportunity for maximum evaluation by academy and agency personnel.

- In view of the small number of full-time instructors assigned to academy training and of the still inadequate provisions for instructor training, it is recommended that LEAA, in association with appropriate state agencies, establish regional instructor training centers for both law enforcement and correctional academies. Such centers could perform several functions. In addition to their primary mission of training instructors and coaches in field training programs in the use of the most appropriate educational methodologies, they could provide technical assistance to academies in developing programs for performance testing, and on related training matters.

- LEAA in coordination with state planning agencies or commissions, and academic institutions, should place priority on upgrading the training being provided to the smaller agencies. These agencies rely mainly either on state and regional academies, where student ratios are high or on academically-affiliated academies where instructional staffs are almost wholly part-time and where the number of training hours offered is below standard. Such an examination would include assessments of the agencies' ability to support longer training periods, methods for upgrading the quality of instruction, and the resources needed to improve programs.

- Finally, attention is directed toward the occupational analysis of the patrolman's duties contained in Volume VIII of this report and the observations on training for this group, in Volume II. It is recommended that LEAA examine closely these findings and provide for the establishment of a curriculum committee of law enforcement personnel and other selected groups to compare offerings at training academies with current and future occupational demands. The purpose of the committee would be to determine, through objective means, what courses are available, especially for medium and small-sized agencies in either recruit or in-service training. The authors realize that there has already been a long history of similar requests by others who have studied police academies. Given the system changes described elsewhere in this report, the need continues to remain urgent.

CHAPTER VII

NOTES AND REFERENCES

1. The distribution of recruits by agency type reported here is based on the assumption that the percentage of recruits that are trained by size of agency approximates the distribution of total personnel by size of agency. The percentage of new hires in small agencies is somewhat higher than in large agencies, but the percentage of new hires that are trained is larger in large agencies than it is in small agencies. These two factors probably come close to cancelling each other out.

2. National Advisory Commission on Standards and Goals, Police (1972), pp. 381-383.

3. The list of law enforcement academies that was compiled by NASDLET through a survey of their state directors of law enforcement training is the source of the distributions reported in Table VI-2. In the case of states without a standards and training commission, other knowledgeable personnel were polled. Although the survey asked state training directors to list as academies all institutions where training takes place, it is at least possible that some agencies provided such a limited volume of training that they were either unknown to or omitted by responding state directors.

   The classification of academies by affiliation is also a potential source of error. Since it was not always possible to check an academy's affiliation, the title and address were used to make this determination in the cases where other information was not available. In some cases, academies have complex interrelationships with law enforcement agencies, colleges, and state and regional commissions. In such cases, the most prominent affiliation is the one reported.

4. The 45 percent figure was derived by comparing the number of trained recruits reported by the Census Survey of Employee Characteristics (1975) with the number of recruits that the NASDLET survey respondents reported having trained.

5. Legal Subjects (i.e., introduction to development, philosophy and types of law; application of the U.S. constitution; court procedures; demeanor; related civil law; civil rights; rules of evidence)

   Criminal Evidence/Investigative Procedures (Crime classification: crime scene procedures, collection of evidence; fingerprinting; arrest and search procedures; use of informants; criminal M.O.; familiarization with known suspects; serving warrants; forensic medicine/criminalistics; interrogation and interviewing; organized crime.

   Patrol Procedures (Reporting, equipment and facility use; day-to-day responsibilities and duties; one-man car procedures)

Traffic (Direction and control; report forms; accident investigations; prisoner control; physical conditioning; swimming)

Weapons (Discretionary use of firearms, proficiency; use of nonlethal weapons)

Physical Training (Armed and unarmed defense; crowd control; prisoner control; physical conditioning; swimming)

Emergency Medical Treatment (First aid)

Community and Human Values and Problems (Minority problems; casues of crime and delinquency; recognizing and handling mentally ill persons; public relations; changing role of police; press relations)

Orientation and Introduction to the Criminal Justice System (notetaking and notebooks; tour of the facility, issuance of equipment; elements and functions of the CJS; history and philosophy of law enforcement; jurisdiction of federal agencies)

Agency Policies and Procedures (evaluation, examination and counseling; rules, regulations, organization, and personnel procedures; police ethics; conduct; complaint situations)

Juvenile (causative factors; preventive measure; handling of juvenile offenders; juvenile court; rights of juveniles; detention and treatment)

Detention (jail procedures)

6. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice.

7. National Advisory Commission on Standards and Goals, Police (1972).

8. Stephen J. Carroll, Jr., Frank T. Paine, and John J. Ivanowich, "The Relative Effectiveness of Training Methods--Expert Opinion and Research," Personnel Psychology 25 (1972): 495-509.

9. James Ahern, Police in Trouble (Hawthorne, 1971).

10. National Advisory Commission, *Police* (1973): 390.

11. *Ibid*., p. 390.

12. Joseph E. McGrath, "A Conceptual Formulation for Research on Stress," In: *Social and Psychological Factors in Stress* (1970), p. 16-17.

13. Joseph E. McGrath, "Settings, Measures, and Themes: An Integrative Review of Some Research on Social-Psychological Factors in Stress," Ibid., p. 78.

14. James C. Coleman, *Abnormal Psychology and Modern Life* (Scott, Foreman and Co., 1964).

15. Howard H. Earle, *Police Recruit Training--Stress vs. Non-Stress* (Charles C. Thomas, 1973) p. 69.

16. *Ibid*., p. 73.

17. *Ibid*., pp. 70, 71.

18. *Ibid*., p. 70.

19. Institute for Training in Municipal Administration, *Municipal Police* Administration (1961), p. 183

20. Ibid, p. 122-141.

21. American Bar Association, Project on Standards for Criminal Justice, *The Urban Police Function* (1973): 209.

22. National Advisory Commission on Standards and Goals, *Police* (1973): 396.

23. *Ibid*., p. 396.

24. Robert Wasserman and David Couper, "Training and Education," In: *Police Personnel Administration*, edited by O. Glenn Stahl and Richard A. Staufenberger (Police Foundation, 1974), p. 129.

25. National Advisory Commission on Standards and Goals, *Police* (1973).

26. Wasserman and Couper.

27. Task Force Report: *Police*, p. 139.

28. National Administration Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, *Police* (1973), p. 396, 409.

CHAPTER VIII. LAW SCHOOLS

Competent counsel for both prosecution and defense is an essential ingredient of an efficient and equitable court system. A variety of factors affect this competence, including the personality and temperament of counsel, the structure of the court system, and salary or fee levels; and the adequacy of counsel's professional preparation often plays a determinative role.

Law school established the foundation of professional competence that furnishes the basis for further professional experiences and continuing education as components of career development. This chapter, then, examines legal education in terms of preparation for courtroom activities and proposals for changes in that preparation. Since bar admission requirements can, and in a few instances do, act as de facto regulators of law school practices, they are also examined.

Section A of this chapter briefly reviews the history of legal education in the United States as a prerequisite to admission to the bar. Section B describes the status of legal education and law admission in general, and of criminal-justice legal education and admission. Section C related criminal-justice legal education to the needs of the criminal justice system and suggests a "model" criminal justice legal education curriculum. Section D suggests a strategy for generating constructive changes in the law school curriculum and teaching modes.[1]

A. THE HISTORY OF LEGAL EDUCATION FOR ADMISSION TO THE BAR

In colonial times and for many years thereafter, admission to the bar was based upon experience as an apprentice to a practicing lawyer. The shift from apprenticeship to educational preparation for legal practice began with Thomas Jefferson's establishment of law professorships, first at William and Mary College and then at the University of Virginia. The example of William and Mary College was followed by a number of other institutions, including Harvard University.[2] These first university law professorships were academic, and the study of law in a university setting remained only a preliminary to an apprenticeship, much as it remains in Great Britain today.[3] The academic study of law was not viewed as the special preserve of future lawyers, but rather was thought to be an essential element of a liberal arts education, particularly for the politician or legislator.

Beginning with the Litchfield School and later (1816) at Harvard, under the leadership of Chief Justice Isaac Porter, law schools were separated from 'the regular curriculum and emphasized professional training for the practice of law. Educational requirement for admission to the bar were soon eliminated, however, probably in partial response to the ideas of Jacksonian equalitarianism, with its view that the practice and making of law should not be limited to lawyers.[4]

With the appointment of Justice Joseph Story to the faculty of Harvard Law School in 1826, the modern law school began to emerge. Justice Story was expressly given permission to publish as well as to teach law, beginning the tradition of scholarly publication aimed at law reform as a major goal of the law school. Among Story's achievements was his emphasis on the study of national law, not limiting legal study to state or regional pecularities.

The major criticism of the Story period was that it established the de facto separation of the law school from the university proper. Not only was there no demand that law students be college graduates, virtually no provision was made for them to attend any other courses in the university. This eliminated any study of government or statutory law by law students, who were to concentrate on crommon law and judicial decisions only and consequently altered the goals of legal education from the preparation of policy-makers to the training of practicing lawyers.

The period from 1846 to 1870 was important more for what occurred outside the law schools than within them. The codification movement of those years, which began assembling the common law into statutes and statutory codes, had a two-fold influence on law schools. First, the initial response to the growing complexity of the law led to the abandonment of all elements of the curriculum that might divert students from emphasizing mastery of legal doctrine. Second, codification of the law became the model for a similar "codification" of the law curriculum.

When Christopher Langdell assumed the deanship of Harvard Law School in 1870, he reorganized the curriculum to improve the efficiency of instruction in various legal doctrines. Until then, each textbook writer had defined his own area of concern, which resulted in a confusing overlapping of teaching tools and incomplete coverage of the field. Another significant contribution by Langdell was the development of the case method of teaching, which required outstanding legal scholars as the teachers. Langdall also increased the hours of instruction and provided for testing the student's knowledge not through recitations at lectures for which attendance was voluntary, but rather through written examinations. In addition, the original attempt to teach "all" of law in three years was abandoned when in 1886 Harvard became the first law shcool to adopt the "elective" system.[5]

In the years to follow, the Langdell vision of what law schools dhould be grew more popular, with emphasis on the teaching of a science rather than a vocational skill. To carry out this new function, A.Z. Reed, in 1921, proposed an institutionalization of the spectrum of law school programs then in existence and to differentiate the tasks that graduates of each school would perform.[6] Those from "weak" law schools would perform specialized tasks--for example, probate or conveyance--while others would be trained to perform a wider variety of tasks.

Reed's idea of a differentiated bar was rejected by the American Bar Association. The ABA adopted instead a resolution declaring that two years of college education should be required for law school admission; night law schools were to be accepted; and the bar examiners were to be permitted to administer written examinations, ending the diploma privilege. In effect, the status quo was thereby maintained.

The stage was now set for the gradual raising of legal education and bar admission requirements. Postponed for the moment were the development of paraprofessional training and the acceptance of legal specialization through specialized, in-depth legal education in particular fields--including criminal law.

The 50-plus years since Reed's book have seen no similar "watershed" occurrence in the general direction of legal education. A 1964 Columbia Law Review cited two key developments, however: the Columbia experiment with integrating social science materials in the school's courses and casebooks, and the "public-policy" approach advocated by Lasswell and McDougal for the second and third-year curriculum.[7] Implementation of this approach has been slow, although there has been acceptance of professional responsibility, in a broad sense, for both public policy and practitioners' ethics.

The Columbia social science movement and the public-policy approach were similar in their emphasis on social science in the study of law. Most casebooks today, as a result, include much nonlegal material. For example, in criminal law, new courses on law and the social sciences and on poverty have been added to the curriculum, and many of them reflect the field study rather than the legal doctrine approach.

The development of legal education in this century has also included a movement toward clinical legal education which arose from a desire to relate the professional responsibility of the bar to the actual skills that a practicing lawyer needs.[8] With Ford Foundation assistance, the National Council on Legal Clinics, sponsored by the National Legal Aid and Defenders Association with the cooperation of the ABA and the AALS, began a pilot project at several law schools sponsoring clinical law courses.[9] Among the objectives of this project were broadening the definition of "professional responsibility" to include public policy concerns for law reform, providing legal services to the indigent, and increasing technical competence in the practice of law. From this beginning, the present Council on Legal Education for Professional Responsibility evolved, and under the impetus of its funding, at least 129 of the 163 accredited law schools offer clinical programs.[10]

B. PRESENT STATUS OF THE LAW SCHOOL CURRICULUM

1. Bar Admission and the Law School Curriculum

As of February 1, 1976, 163 undergraduate law schools were accredited by the American Bar Association.[11] Graduation from an ABA-accredited law school is a requirement for admission to the bar in most states;[12] only in California are there a substantial number of bar examination applicants from unaccredited law schools.[13] In four states, admission may be gained through law office study alone,[14] and three others accept such study in combination with one or two years of law school.[15] Texas permits taking the bar exam if 80 semester hours have been completed without a degree. The most restrictive state is Utah, which apparently does not approve nonresidential law schools (i.e., night schools) although such schools are accredited by the ABA.[16] A few states require that law graduates also have experience in a clerkship for three or six months.[17]

A few state bar requirements also specify curriculum content. For example, Ohio, Florida, and Indiana require the study of legal ethics.[18] More commonly, state rules specify the length of the law curriculum or regulate certain features of the curriculum. New York, for example, requires the residential curriculum to have a minimum of 80 hours in "professional law subjects" completed in 96 weeks of study, of which no more than 15 percent can be in a clinical course.[19] The Supreme Court of Indiana has issued a prospective rule to take effect on January 1, 1977, that would give the court some control of the curriculum of the University of Indiana's law schools.[20] The Clare Committee of the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit has recommended the pursuit of a minimum course curriculum before admission to the district courts of that circuit.[21]

The freedom of law schools to determine their own curricula is in large part "illusory" however, Gee and Jackson, in their study of law school curricula, found that a national bar examination curriculum exists which forces law schools to give and students to pursue certain courses in order to prepare for the bar exam.[22] This curriculum is shown in Table VIII-1.

Gee and Jackson conclude that the margin for change in law school curricula is not large. Change can occur only in the mode of teaching required courses, or with the addition or elimination of elective courses. This means that there is more possibility of change in high-resource law schools than in those with fewer resources.

TABLE VIII-1

BAR EXAMINATION REQUIREMENTS IN 43 STATES

Topics	Number of States	Percentage
Criminal Law[a]	43	100.0
Evidence[a]	43	100.0
Torts[a]	43	100.0
Real and Personal Property[a]	42	97.7
Contracts[a]	41	95.3
Business Organizations	39	90.7
Uniform Commercial Code (UCC)	39	90.7
State and Federal Procedure[a]	39	90.7
Constitutional Law[a]	38	88.4
Wills	38	88.4
Trusts and Estates	37	86.0
Equity	3	72.1
Ethics	29	67.4
Family Law	29	67.4
Conflict of Laws	24	55.8
State and Federal Tax[a]	22	51.1

[a] Required by most law schools.

Source: E.G. Gee and D.W. Jackson, Following the Leader? The Unexamined Consensus in Law School Curricula (1975): 37.

2. Law Students and Bar Admissions

In the fall of 1975, 116,991 students were attending accredited law schools,[23] this figure being 5.7 percent higher than in the fall of 1974. If the students in newly accredited law schools were not included, the gain in enrollment would be 3.3 percent. Of those entering law school today, a substantially higher proportion complete their studies than did a decade earlier (85 percent compared with 65 percent).[24]

New admissions to the bar have also risen. In calendar year 1974, 33,358 persons passed a bar examination, compared with 12,023 a decade earlier.[25] Of those, 882 were graduates from nonaccredited law schools, while four had only law office study. An additional 882 law graduates were granted the diploma privilege for bar admission. These figures are approximate, since not all states report the legal education of new admittees.

The legal profession, consequently, is growing rapidly. As of 1974, there were an estimated 385,000 lawyers in the United States.[26] The admission of over 30,000 new lawyers each year will, if continued, increase the size of the legal profession by 1985 to between 500,000 and 600,000.

This growth suggests that employment in criminal justice agencies or as appointed defense counsel should become increasingly more attractive to new lawyers. A related inference, drawn from earlier analysis, is that the bar examination often determines what courses law students take and even what courses a law school offers. Jackson and Gee in their studies have convincingly demonstrated this to be the case. The bar examination process has been the subject of much criticism, for rigid format and for gaps in the coverage.[27] Were the great majority of bar admittees not drawn from law school graduates, the effect of bar requirements might not be as great.[28]

3. Law School Goals and Procedures

The first consideration in an analysis of the place of criminal justice legal education is the overall law curriculum is the question: are the goals of law schools compatible with criminal justice needs?

A 1971 curriculum study by the Association of American Law Schools implicitly discusses goals, but only in the sense that they can be inferred from its recommendations for structuring alternative curricula.[29] Packer and Ehrlich's report for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education is even less helpful, being descriptive and critical rather than explicative.[30] Similarly, law school specific curriculum studies, such as that by Myers et. al., of the University of South Carolina Law School, do not explain why and how their recommendations will have specific and desirable results.[31]

Professor Kelso's study of part-time law schools for the AALS, however, contains information obtained from deans and law school catalogs describing law school goals. These goals fall into three categories. First, there is the manpower goal--to produce graduates equipped to fill various positions, primarily as legal practitioners. In addition, some of the elite law schools are concerned with equipping their graduates to be "legal statesmen," such as mayors, legislators, appellate judges, and members of their staffs. Virtually no law school is concerned with the preparation of graduate to hold nonpractitioner positions, which, for criminal justice, include planners, court administrators, and police legal advisors.

The second law school goal (related to the first) is to equip graduates with the skills and knowledge required of a lawyer. "Thinking like a lawyer" is a phrase used to describe the process of distilling facts into the appropriate legal principles and process. The ability to master the substantive principles of law is limited by their breadth and depth, which make it impossible for any individual to learn "all"doctrine. Hence, the emphasis is on introductory and survey courses, plus mastery of legal research and analytic skills, so the lawyer will be able to make legal predictions as the need arises. Particular stress is laid on the ability of students to distinguish between different rules in different cases as they strive to learn the general rule. Professor Schulhofer has described this as learning

> . . . to recognize subtle shading of fact and to make distinctions with surgical precision. From the welter of legal rules, they learn to discern the purposes, often conflicting, that the law serves. They see that judicial decisions, by limiting

> the scope of this or that exception to the rule, can change the "delicate balance" between conflicting policies, or mark the recognition of new values. They discover the importance of what Cardoza called the "interstices" of the law, the narrow spaces between the exception applicable in one situation and the rule governing another, and observe how courts fashion social policy by microscopic interstitial movements. They learn how they as lawyers can understand this process and influence its shape and direction.[32]

Special emphasis may also be placed on the study of legal ethics, as they affect advocacy for a client and as a social responsibility of the legal profession. The law graduate is also expected to develop writing skills through such activities as law review, moot court briefs, and third-year papers. Clinical law programs are expected to provide experience in advocacy skills, including fact finding, negotiation, and counseling.

The third law school goal is long-term reform of the law. Law schools as institutions, however, do not usually see law reform as an institutional goal per se. Rather, the law school is seen as an intermediary in the law reform through publications or service as consultants to government. This distinction, while perhaps subtle, is not unimportant, for it is only in the last 15 years that law schools have established research centers or placed themselves within "law centers."[33]

While these goals are all desirable, the means by which law schools try to put them into practice is often criticized. The most significant criticism is that legal education fails to convey the complexities of fact situations. It is maintained that the emphasis of the law school on analyzing appellate cases fails to equip the graduate with either an appreciation of the difficulties of analyzing facts or within the skills for such analysis. It is also argued that the successful practitioner should often be skilled as a trial advocate, with a complete knowledge of pretrial procedures and an understanding of their relationship to the tactical and strategic decisions at or for trial.[34] In addition, the lawyering process is often an interpersonal one, and the traditional law curriculum may not include the kind of training that develops such interpersonal skills as interviewing clients or witnesses, negotiation, or counseling.[35]

Another major criticism is that law curriculum overemphasizes litigation or the common law perspective. As a result, legislation as a mode of reform is more often an afterthought than an automatic response to societal problems.[36] In addition, critics point out that law graduates have not practiced the skills of legislative drafting, nor have they learned more than the rudiments of statute analysis.

Law school reform is proceeding, however. Many of the criticisms that were valid 20 years ago no longer are, and others are being addressed. The study of public law, for example, is no longer considered as unimportant as it was 20 years ago. More significantly, the advent of clinical law courses in the past decade has provided students with an opportunity to develop practitioner skills in an atmosphere supportive of the development of professional responsibility. However, clinical courses do not provide a counterweight to the overriding concern for litigation, which so often results from emphasis on the Socratic method in the traditional curriculum. Indeed, clinical education may even reinforce thie tendency. As is discussed below, a 'system perspective' of criminal justice is needed by the nonlitigating lawyer or legal statesman. Clinical education is not, however, the final word on law school reform.

4. Current Quantitative Status of Criminal Justice in the Law School Curriculum

The NMS analysis of 1975 catalogs from 162 of the 163 ABA-approved undergraduate law schools shows that 99 percent offered criminal law, compared with 100 percent in 1966; 88 percent required it in the first year, compared with 96 percent in 1966.[37] Of the three schools that did not offer criminal law courses, the University of South Carolina and Franklin Pierce included criminal law materials in their criminal law materials in their criminal process course, while Antioch was a "clinical" law school, not offering the traditional curriculum.

The analysis also showed that 78 percent of the law schools offered criminal process, compared with 69 percent in 1966; 30 percent required it in the first year, slightly more than did in 1966. However, the nonseminar criminal justice offerings accounted for only 5.8 percent of the total nonseminar offerings. The median number of courses and seminars on criminal law topics was 5.45. The range of criminal justice offerings was 1 to 18 courses and seminars, or 2 to 12 percent of the total. The average increase in the emphasis on criminal justice offerings between 1966 and 1975 was over 50 percent, although it appeared that much of the increase (25 to 50 percent) was due to the addition of criminal justice seminars rather than substantive course offerings. A significant number of schools virtually doubled their criminal justice offerings. For the 30 schools with fewer than 55 courses, criminal justice courses and seminars accounted for 5.5 percent of their offerings.

Table VIII-2 shows the frequency with which different types of specialized criminal justice courses were offered by law schools. The only comparable 1966 data for specialized courses counted only juvenile-justice courses, which increased from 8 percent in 1966 to 55 percent.[38] It may be assumed that the 39 percent frequency of corrections courses is almost totally composed of courses added to the curriculum since 1966. The growth in presentation of both of these courses indicates a growing interest in studying the process of criminal justice administration rather than limiting study to the elements of a crime, with some coverage of constitutional restrictions on criminal procedures.

TABLE VIII-2

INCIDENCE OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF SPECIALIZED CRIMINAL JUSTICE COURSES AMONG LAW SCHOOLS

Type of Course	Percentage of Law Schools Offering the Course
Advanced criminal law	55
Advanced criminal process	38
Corrections	39
Juvenile justice	55
Police related	4
Administration of criminal justice	34

Source: NMS Executive Surveys, 1975.

The ratio of criminal justice seminars to total seminar offerings was 11.1 percent. This suggests that law school faculty members were significantly more interested in criminal law and justice than the curricula allowed.

Criminal justice clinical courses accounted for 65 percent of the clinical offerings in the 124 schools with clinical programs (counting combined civil-criminal as criminal).[39] This may indicate that clinical faculty members are significantly more criminal-justice oriented than are traditional faculty. The greater willingness of criminal justice agencies to accept clinical students, compared with students of general or commercial law, is the reason for this difference. The fact that 79 schools offered a clinical program with a prisoner assistance component suggests the breadth of interests among the clinical faculty.

The number of courses offered by a law school appears to be a better predictor of the relative importance of criminal justice in the curriculum than the "resource ratio" used by Jackson and Gee in their study of electives in the law curricula. However, the results are similar.[40]

It is possible to compare the 6.8 percent incidence of criminal justice courses (including seminars) in the overall curricula of law schools with the 8.7 percent incidence of tax law courses, or the 24.6 percent incidence of business law courses.[41] A comparison of business versus criminal law offerings in all law schools showed that small schools had a ratio of 5.8 business courses to each criminal justice course, but the ratio for large schools was only 3.4.[42] A similar small-large school relationship applies in the case of tax law/criminal justice courses (the ratio for small schools is 2.0, compared with 1.3 for large schools). Thus, the larger the number of course offerings, the stronger the interest in criminal law relative to either business or tax law. This does not necessarily prove, however, that large schools emphasize criminal law more than small law schools do. Rather, it reflects the greater diversity of the total curriculum in large law schools. For example, large schools are more likely to offer environmental law courses or law and society courses, neither of which was counted in the analysis of criminal or business law subject matter.

5. Institutional Barriers to Change

Law schools have traditionally concerned themselves with the academic preparation of undergraduate law students. Complete preparation of students for the practice of law was not sought since it was felt that skills could be more efficiently gained through actual law office work. The requirements of many states for law clerk experience prior to bar admission reinforced the law school's hesitation to provide skill training. However, state bar requirements for law clerk experience have virtually disappeared in the past 20 years. Only three states still retain such a requirement. Clinical law programs have now become a common feature of law school curricula, as a partial response to the problem of equipping law students with practical skills.

One legacy remains, however, in the historical gap between law schools and the practicing bar. The emphasis in many schools remains focused on undergraduate law preparation. The literature indicates that full-time faculty are often selected for academic abilities, with little regard for either practical experience or preparation in nonlegal skills such as those required for social science research. The institutional concerns of many law schools are still primarily internal, without regard for the concerns of the practicing bar or the larger community. For example, law reform refers to doctrinal law changes rather than to reshaping either the method of delivery of legal services or the adjudicative system itself.

Change is occurring, however. Many law schools today offer continuing legal education programs for the practicing bar. Research centers and cooperative degree programs are becoming more frequent. Clinical programs provide a mechanism for delivery of legal services to the community.

But the rate of change is slow. The law school faculties are still divided into those on tenure and those regarded as augmented clinical staff. The Council on Legal Education for Professional Responsibility felt that in making grants it had to impose a requirement that clinical faculty be eligible for tenure. Tenure eligibility is often reserved for supervising faculty members and not available to clinical staff attorneys.[43]

The absence of equal acceptance for the clinical program staff has an impact both on the quality of the programs and on the quality of the staff attracted to them. An incidental effect of this tension between clinical program and traditional faculty is that it diminishes the possibilities for improving undergraduate law curricula through the incorporation of program expertise and feedback.

Two methods of change are suggested in the literature. First, law schools could consciously and explicitly make institutional commitments to programs other than teaching undergraduate law. Professor David Cavers has suggested the development of "law centers," which would combine, for example, the external programs of the law school with the undergraduate law programs. Second, as law centers emerge, new types of law school faculty could be appointed to respond to the external needs for law school services and programs within the practicing bar and the community, thus merging the legal and nonlegal academic and real-life skills (including social science research skills).

C. THE DEFENSE AND PROSECUTION PERSPECTIVE ON THE QUALITY OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE LEGAL EDUCATION

To this point, this chapter has examined the law school curriculum, presented some general observations about the curriculum as a whole, and reviewed the place of such courses as criminal law and criminal procedure in that curriculum. This section considers some of the qualitative deficiences of the law school curriculum for preparing criminal justice practitioners.

Law school preparation has until recently been conceived of as intended to prepare legal generalists, not specialists. However, there has been a longstanding and heavy emphasis in many of the leading law schools on preparing corporate lawyers. More than 25 percent of all second- and third-year courses remain business-oriented; for example, the NMS showed that 8.7 percent of the curricula involved tax courses. While the field of criminal justice has steadily grown in importance in the public sector, it has continued to be relatively unimportant in most law schools, as the foregoing catalog analysis indicated.

Current learning theory suggests that total curriculum content must be related to the specifics of course content and sequencing. This discussion begins with a quantitative and qualitative review of the typical criminal justice law curriculum.

1. The Quality of the Criminal Justice Curriculum

Quality of law school education is in part a function of quantity. The typical program of criminal justice courses in the undergraduate law curriculum consists of one required criminal law course that includes some materials on criminal procedure, or a criminal law course followed by an elective law or procedure course.

Most law schools (88 percent) require criminal law; only 30 percent require criminal procedure. In 55 percent of the law schools, courses in advanced criminal procedure courses, which usually encompass constitutional law topics such as the exclusionary rule. Some of the courses, however, are of a topical nature, such as organized crime. About a third of the law schools offer a course on administration of justice. In most schools, that is a second- or third-year elective, while two schools include it as a basic law course. Special courses are offered on juvenile justice in 35 percent of the schools, on corrections in 39 percent, and on police practices in 4 percent. Overlap among these course offerings is high. About 28 percent of all law schools offer no more than one elective, and 54 percent offer three or fewer electives. Eighteen schools have no criminal law elective at all.

a. Criminal Law Texts. The traditional criminal law course heavily emphasizes the elements of a crime--the requirements for criminal liability or responsibility. Most casebooks on criminal law attempt to treat criminal procedure issues, but they are rarely integrated into the substantive law materials. The casebooks of Kadish and Paulson[44] or Vorenberg,[45] for example, discuss criminal procedure after criminal law. Moreover, their procedural treatments are almost doctrinal in approach, emphasizing constitutional issues with little demonstration of the interrelatedness of the processes of the criminal justice system. Kadish and Paulson are notable, also, for stripping the court's discussion of the underlying facts from the case presentation, although it is upon these facts that the court's expansion of the theoretical principles of law is based.

Jurisprudential questions also are a characteristic feature of criminal law textbooks. The issue of punishment is approached in a variety of ways, ranging from an essay on the law of homicide by Michaels and Weschler[46] to the use by Goldstein et al. of a Connecticut case involving a homosexual doctor whose practice included juvenile males. Of the criminal law texts reviewed for the present study, only the Goldstein books appear successful in integrating the process of making and administering law with the substantive elements of the law itself. However, the Goldstein text is used in very few schools. Also notable is Weinreb's conceptual approach to criminal law, which combines an historical review of the growth of the law with discussion of the elements of a crime and the actors. Extensive use of noncase materials and editorial summaries is also prominent, particularly in the section on punishment. While such approaches may be intellectually satisfying for the student, many first-year criminal law teachers appear to find it difficult to utilize these noncase materials in the Socratic teaching method they use.

However, integration may not be desirable unless clear to the student. The sheer bulk of the Goldstein book presents a monumental obstacle to student integration of its materials. Johnson's casebook,[47] on the other hand, begins with criminal procedure and then discusses substantive criminal law. Just as important as the temporal sequencing of procedure vs. law is the attempt to find a central core. Johnson emphasizes the importance of the preliminary hearing as the critical adjudication point—at least for purposes of conceptualizing procedure. Johnson's book has been available for only one year, hence Dix and Sharlot's Case and Materials on Criminal Law is the book most commonly cited by criminal law professors as the best in combining procedure with substantive law.[48] The primary difference is that Johnson's book presents procedure as preliminary to substantive law while Dix and Sharlot emphasize their coexistence. Also notable is the legislative (e.g., Model Penal Code) approach of Dix and Sharlot.

b. Criminal Procedure Texts. In contrast to the criminal law casebooks, those on criminal procedure often contain a significant amount of non-legal materials. They emphasize constitutional law issues and the settings in which such issues arise. For example, Kamisar et al. devote 45 pages to excerpts from leading books and articles on the police and their relation to the courts before discussing such questions as probable cause for arrest or search and seizure.[49] Throughout the book an attempt is made to offer a perspective on the way the issues in question fit into a larger picture. The larger picture is quite limited, however. Unlike Johnson's book, this is a "flow" picture of criminal procedure, with little attempt to aid the student in unifying or systematizing the available information. It describes a static, rather than a dynamic, criminal justice system. For example, there may be a right to counsel for those unable to afford counsel, but who is the counsel and how effective is the delivery of legal services? Why does the trial court countenance the existence of ineffective counsel or even no counsel at all? For such topics, little information is imparted about the realities of the criminal justice system. Some of these omissions of coverage and perspective may be remedied through class discussion. However, the overwhelming bulk of the materials in the casebook, combined with the inherent limitations of the Socratic method of teaching usually used, is likely to preclude thorough class discussions in all but a few instances.

The conceptual approach of Kamisar et al. to criminal procedure might be described as "legalistic," with its early emphasis on due process rights. In contrast, Goldstein and Orland conceptualize their criminal procedure casebook as having a centerpiece of trial or plea.[50] They view arrest as merely a pretrial screen, a view that implicitly recognizes the substantial discretion exercised by the police. In fact, the second theme of this casebook might well be described as the discretionary powers of all criminal justice personnel. Police interrogation is not seen merely as a question of legal voluntariness, as in Kamisar, but primarily as a mode of gathering evidence that may be abused.

The criminal procedure texts have their limitations, even on their own terms, as being academically oriented, not intended to have practical utility. In contrast, most civil procedure casebooks combine academic with practical information; for example, the use of interrogatories in pretrial discovery. The absence of "how to do it" materials is a definite limitation of criminal procedure casebooks.

c. Administration of Criminal Justice Courses. Two law schools offer as an introductory course a broad survey of the field of administration of criminal justice. In the main, however, such courses approach criminal procedure in the manner of Goldstein and Orland, emphasizing the realities of criminal justice administration, including discretionary decision-making. Administration of criminal justice is also the title for a second- or third-year elective.[51]

d. Elective Courses. The criminal justice courses offered in the second and third years are primarily of reinforcement value, broadening and strengthening the student's knowledge of the operations and laws of the criminal justice system. The need for advanced courses results from the omissions in the first-year curriculum. For example, the treatment of corrections in most procedure casebooks is usually a limited one and may not even be discussed in the classroom. Juvenile justice is rarely, if ever, treated in first-year criminal courses. Quasi-criminal justice, such as mental commitment proceedings, may be included in the first year, but ususally with reference only to the insanity defense. All of these require more systematic consideration than is possible in the first-year criminal law course.

Second- and third-year criminal justice course offerings are almost always chosen on an ad hoc basis and hence reflect a law school's historical curriculum, present faculty interests, or, perhaps, the availability of casebooks or texts. Reasoned choice is the exception rather than the rule. Of particular concern is the near absence of courses dealing with the problems of the police. Only 4 percent of the law schools offer such a course.

e. Clinical Law Courses. Clinical experience is usually offered to law students in their third year, although many schools permit students to take clinical courses in the second year. Nearly two-thirds of the clinical programs offered include a criminal justice component and provide for work in a prosecutor's or defender's office, juvenile probation, police agency, or prisoner-rights program (including civil litigation). Only 5 of the 124 schools with clinical programs do not offer any experience with criminal justice.[52]

Clinical programs may be in-house clinics, where defense work is done by the students under the supervision of faculty members and, often, clinical staff attorneys as well. Some programs are "farmed out," however, to prosecutors' or defenders' offices where an office attorney may be given adjunct faculty status to supervise clinical students. Farmed-out programs also exist under dual supervision by faculty and office attorneys.

Many schools require class preparation for clinical experience, usually a prerequisite credit course. During the clinical program, the faculty attorney meets on a periodic basis with the students in a group to discuss problems they perceive relating to either legal-litigation issues or ethical-systematic issues. While it is easier to have class meetings with the in-house clinic, the need is greater with the farmed-out clinic; hence, the advantage of mixed or dual responsibility for supervision of external clinics.

The value of the clinical program is twofold. It increases the expertise of the student in lawyering skills, including client interviewing, fact analysis, counseling, negotiation, and trial advocacy. The clinical experience also exposes the student to the realities of legal practice, such as coping with a criminal court system overburdened with cases, with the judiciary, and with a clientele with mixed socioeconomic or racial backgrounds. It is the supervising faculty attorney's responsibility to help the student learn to sustain these pressures in an effective, professional, and ethical manner. Clinical experience may also expose law students to the systematic problems of criminal justice that underlie the problems they encounter.

2. A Qualitative "Model" for the Criminal Justice Curriculum

The specifics of legal education do not necessarily make up the whole--at least for the criminal justice components of legal education. Substantive knowledge and technical skills are only part of the practicing lawyer's abilities. Just as important is the ability to use those skills and knowledge appropriately when needed. Indeed, from one perspective--that of an adversarial model of criminal justice--evidence suggests that many defense lawyers do not utilize their legal skills to the fullest. Research has shown that in virtually all courts, there is a near absence of the adversarial process as evidenced by such criteria as the number of pretrial motions filed for supporting evidence, for example. More importantly, it seems that few attorneys recognize constitutional issues that have not been belabored in their law school courses. Once lawyers enter practice they often simply accept what is customary in the local courts.

With these "adversarial" deficiencies in mind, the following model curriculum has been prepared. The model recognizes that the goals of law schools include preparing both practitioners and legal statesmen. It assumes a teaching faculty able to implement the curriculum courses; that is, with both the substantive knowledge and skills and an adversarial perspective on criminal justice reform. The model assumes that the first-year curriculum includes a course on legal writing, analyses, and statutory interpretation and, hence, the pedagogic virtues of criminal law courses are duplicated elsewhere in the curriculum. For example, a constitutional law course acquaints students with the balancing process of public policy decision-making. The model purposely omits from consideration any discussion of "clinical" law schools (Antioch) or "cooperative" law schools (Northeastern). This exclusion implies no judgment on their desirability. The model applies to the most widely accepted curricula.[53]

a. First Year. The first-year course, where there is one course as the sole criminal justice requirement, should emphasize criminal process rather than criminal law. An exposure to criminal process seems preferable, especially if one is concerned with policy issues. It is doubtful that first-year students can fully comprehend either the basic jurisprudential issues found in the best criminal law casebooks or their relationship to process problems and issues.[54]

Moreover, questions of criminal law exist in only a small percentage of all criminal cases. Jacob and Eisenstein, for example, found that the cases of 40 to 70 percent of all individuals arrested on felony charges are dismissed.[55] Annual police department reports that include arrest-disposition data substantiate this finding.[56] Jacob and Eisenstein also found that, in the main, these dismissals occur at the preliminary hearing stage, where the question is one of fact: whether there is probable cause that a crime occurred and the defendant committed the crime. Questions of criminal law, such as the elements of crime, are relatively rare.

Despite eventual dismissals, these defendants did receive "punishments"--such as pretrial detention, bail, or attorney costs--that cannot be considered insignificant--either in the aggregate or to the individuals. Neither are the duties of their defense counsel negligible, since they include such procedural responsibilities as arranging bail, appealing bail refusal, dealing with the police and prosecutor, and interviewing witnesses.

Thus, it would appear that while learning criminal law is important, a knowledge of criminal process is indispensable to the practitioner and policymaker, and might be placed first in the teaching sequence.

This approach, focusing on the practical needs of the criminal lawyer--within historical, institutional, systemic, and consitutional contexts--seems possible, since a similar approach exists in civil procedure courses and textbooks.[57] The content of such a course might include criminal procedure, analysis of the various actors in the court process (prosecutors, defenders, etc.), and the historical growth of the criminal law from "breach of the King's peace." Such a course would also include a comparative perspective, such as the abolition of the grand jury in England or the burden of proof in Continental (Civil) Law countries.

It seems that the pedagogic values of a criminal process course are no less than those of criminal law. For example, the constitutional concerns relevant to provisions in the Federal Rules of Criminal Procedure for prosecution discovery of defendant's evidence have virtually the same pedagogic content as a constitutional law course per se.[58] This example also seems to be analogous to the legislative process in criminal law insofar as the Supreme Court acts in a semilegislative role under legislatively delegated authority.

The criminal process course should be followed by a course in criminal law, which might be an elective or required. The present emphasis on criminal law as a social control process can (and should) be retained once the necessary grounding in the realities of criminal justice administration is accomplished in the process course. This might be supplemented by more historical materials than are now used. Such materials might help the student better understand the policy decision-making process through contrast with policy decisions in their initial context.

The objective of these changes is to prepare the law school graduate of criminal process courses at least as well to litigate criminal cases as graduates of civil procedure courses are prepared to litigate civil cases.

b. Second Year. The second-year course should reinforce the teachings of the first year by in-depth exposition and analysis. Breadth of coverage should be emphasized rather than the present "topical" course on specific issues. One suggestion is a course entitled "Problems in Criminal Justice." An alternative course might be one based on casebooks that use the survey method (and title) of "Administration of Criminal Justice."

It may be, however, that a central theme is required, one that integrates the material covered. The most satisfactory theme seems to be the criminal justice "bottom line"--of sentencing.[59] All the discretionary decisions that precede or impact upon the sentencing decision are within the thematic content. These include police dismissal of charges and the prosecutor's charging, screening, and use of deferred prosecution (itself the equivalent of a sentencing decision when unilaterally decided by the prosecutor). The availability of alternative dispostions seems similarly relevant for a policy forum rather than one on operational decision-making. Pretrial topics of relevance are speedy trial, plea bargaining, bail reform, and others that have an impact upon the likelihood of a guilty plea or findings, on which the sentencing decision is based.

The sentencing focus also provides the model's introduction to the correctional process and would include criminological studies on the etiology of crime, general and special deterrence, success and failure of rehabilitation programs, or the collateral consequences of conviction--loss of voting rights or employment disabilities.

Thus, the subject matter of a sentencing course might well be the equivalent of either of the two survey alternatives mentioned. The difference lies in the unifying perspective inherent in the sentencing concept. A second advantage of this perspective is the ease with which one can consider the difficulties in imposing change--which normally involve the views of policy-makers and operational executives--or the impact of plea bargaining on the criminal justice system.[60] A third advantage of a sentencing focus is that it allows discussion of such basic issues as the nature of justice and the relationship of procedure to justice.[61]

The importance of the sentencing decision lies in its implementation of the underlying philosophy of the criminal law and its administrative mechanism. The most critical choices are these. Should criminal law be based upon a deterrence or a treatment philosophy? Is efficiency the prime virtue or is it individualized justice? It is here at the sentencing decision that the abstractions of criminal jurisprudence attain their greatest reality and relevance. Moreover, it is often through a sentencing focus that one can gain appreciation of the relationship between utilitarian concerns and problems of equal justice.

Finally, the model curriculum should offer advanced criminal law/process courses in the second semester of the second year, with the sentencing course a prerequisite. These courses would, therefore, supplement, not substitute for, the sentencing course. Advanced courses on criminal process would treat constitutional law issues primarily, but not exclusively. Another advanced criminal law course might, for example, systematically examine the overextension of criminal law, or focus on one or more substantive areas of concern--for example, victimless crimes.

c. Third Year. In the third year, specialized courses such as corrections, juvenile justice, comparative criminal law, or procedure could be offered for those interested in a thorough examination of these areas.

Other relevant courses are constitutional law, advanced constitutional law, family law, administrative law, law and psychiatry, law and the social sciences, and law and poverty.

Clinical experiences should also be available, in a variety of settings. They should provide real-life situations rather than simulation for several reasons. First, only actual experience can effectively expose students to the reality of such outside pressures as conflicts of interest; case overload; or the behavior of the judiciary, opposing counsel, and clients. Close faculty supervision and classroom integration of experiences with intellectual analysis will help avoid the possibility of students learning to imitate undesirable role models or behavior. Second, clinical programs can and should include observation as well as experience. Police or correctional agencies provide good settings for observation. While simulation may be useful for limited supplemental purposes, such as practice in specific skills, it cannot substitute for these other clinical programs.

Finally, trial advocacy courses could be available to students who expect to be involved in court litigation.[62] While these courses are probably oriented more toward civil than criminal law, the fact is that about one-third of the trial docket in the United States deals with criminal matters. Because it is impossible to separate criminal from civil matters in either the classroom or the courtroom, support for either one necessitates support for a trial advocacy course in the law school.

3. The Future of the Model Curriculum

Not all students would need or would be interested in taking all elements of the model curriculum. The suggested courses would amount to between 15 and 18 credit hours in three years, including 6 credit hours in the first year, 6 elective hours, and 3 to 6 clinical hours. This does not seem excessive for specilaization, and it is no more than some undergraduates take of tax law courses today.

Nor would the model curriculum seem to be an extensive burden on law schools. For the high-resource law schools,[63] the inclusion of five or six criminal justice-related courses would not be a burden. Even for those low-resource law schools that offer between 50 and 60 courses (and only 20 offer fewer),[64] the model curriculum would consititute no more than 10 percent of their effort, or about double the present criminal justice program.

Given the relatively low importance of criminal justice employment for graduates of low-resource law schools,[65] it may be difficult for them to justify putting a larger effort into criminal justice. Moreover, the inertia of the past often precludes any critical review of the curriculum or consideration of possible curricular change. While this is also true of high-resource law schools, their resources do permit the luxury of curriculum criticism. The University of Pennsylvania and New York University Law School have both made recent in-house curriculum review. Given the extent to which the goals of high-resource law schools include turning out "legal statesmen," it seems reasonable to expect their curricula to include a more substantial (where necessary) criminal justice program. For most high-resource law schools, there need not be an increase in the criminal justice offerings, but merely a redirection. An increased effort does not seem too much to expect of law schools, given the problems of criminal law in today's society.

The need, then, is for some external inputs to curricular change, and the next section pursues possible avenues of change.

D. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is not a simple task to determine the precise impact of law school education upon the administration of criminal justice. Long-term implications are often referred to, even if the actual cause and effect relationship remains hazy. For, it is the boast of many law schools that they produce leaders of society--judges, legislators, etc.--not mere practitioners, and "as the twig is bent, so grows the tree." There is much to be said for this perspective, although a better metaphor might be one that compares the effects of legal education to the effects of nutritional deficiences in the child's diet on the adult's physical and mental potential.

But how do the adequacies and inadequacies of law school preparation affect the daily operations of criminal justice in the courts? To find out, two studies must be undertaken: the first to examine the quality of law school education, the second to examine the personnel operating the machinery of justice.

There is relatively little emphasis on criminal law and procedure in the law schools. What there is, is almost entirely theoretical, overlooking practical considerations, except in the clinical law programs. Little attention is paid to the relationship between procedure and substantive law--how each affects and shapes the other.

Despite the language of the American Bar Association's Defense Function report, "(W)here once the subject of criminal law was the stepchild of the curriculum in the law schools, today there is competition among faculty for the opportunity to teach it. . . ." the fact of the matter is that criminal law is still the stepchild of the law school. Criminal justice courses are only 6.8 percent of the total curriculum. A significant proportion of the criminal justice curriculum, however, is composed of clinical and preclinical courses, so that the substantive importance of criminal law is not that high, but really about 5.8 percent. While faculty interest in criminal law may be high, this interest provides little of value to the law student. Nor can the quality of most criminal law courses be praised. Several criminal law casebooks all but avoid discussing criminal procedure, while the leading casebook separates the two as though there were no functional or intellectual relationship between them. Since in many law schools criminal procedure is not required, it can be assumed that many, if not most, law graduates today are incapable of practicing criminal law without extensive continuing legal education, and that they would be incapable of comprehending the issues vis a vis criminal justice reform were they to be in "legal statesman" positions. Indeed, the poor intellectual quality of most criminal procedure casebooks (as compared to civil procedure casebooks) is damning evidence of the low regard given by law schools to the practice of criminal law.

As a result of this poor preparation, the average law graduate is ill-equipped to practice criminal law. While the rudiments of civil-law pretrial practice are part of the law curriculum, few law graduates have ever been exposed to the problems of the pretrial tasks incident to a criminal prosecution.

Upon graduation, the inexperienced and untutored law graduate who joins a prosecutor's staff or a public defender's office is, more often than not, assigned responsibility to represent that office at various pretrial duties and hearings. The talents of experienced attorneys are reserved for trial. Quite often the only preparation for these pretrial responsibilities is the experience gained in law school; entry training and supervision of new attorneys are not commonly available.

Numerous empirical studies have shown that criminal prosecutions are predominantly resolved by pretrial proceedings. To take the most obvious examples, illegally seized evidence, coerced confessions, or trained line-up procedures would, if not challenged, totally dominate the trial if there were one. Less obvious is the damage done by an inexperienced attorney's failures, such as misallocating precious prosecutorial resources through poor case screening, or the inexperienced defender's failure to interview critical witnesses or the arresting officer, or to properly cross-examine witnesses at a probable cause hearing.

In a criminal justice system where 95 percent of all cases are disposed of without trial, the importance of the pretrial proceedings should be beyond dispute. That this is not the case is the ultimate example of the failure of legal education. This is the major long-term challenge to legal education: to provide its graduates with a comprehensive understanding of the workings of the administration of criminal justice.

The more immediate need is for better prepared law graduates for practitioner positions. While administrative and managerial reform of the court agencies is needed, as is more trainig, the reality is that they will both be slow to come. Indeed, with the present proliferation of small prosecutor and defender offices (perhaps two-thirds of each have fewer than three attorneys) the availability of training for all new entrants will remain low. To this consideration must also be added the fact that 41,000 private attorneys perform criminal defense work. For many of these lawyers, law school preparation is the basic building block for their professional competence. Only a few will overcome this handicap through continuing legal education.

The conclusion must be that improvements in legal education's training programs in criminal law and procedure are indispensible to improvement of the quality of criminal law practice.

1. Law Schools, Continuing Legal Education, and Bar Admission

The perspective of this chapter has been a limited one, focused primarily on the undergraduate law degree program. Law schools engage in other activities relevant to our basic concern for the adequacy of criminal justice personnel, particularly through continuing legal education. Chapter IX of this volume discusses issues relating to continuing legal education (CLE), including mandatory CLE.

It is impossible to separate the two kinds of legal education completely. For example, the report of the Clare Committee, which studied the question of the competence of trial attorneys for the U.S. Second Circuit of Appeals, presented recommendations for both legal preparation and continuing legal education.[66] Irrespective of the merits of the specific Clare Committee recommendations, it is important to note here the additional question of how best to provide a law graduate with the practical knowledge he or she needs before admission to the bar. The Second Circuit Committee and the Indiana Supreme Court have indicated their belief that this is the law schools' obligation. The law schools, on the other hand, protest that they cannot provide this training in any cost-effective way as efficiently as CLE programs can.

There is, however, a third alternative--a skills course provided after law graduation and prior to admission. The State of New Jersey has had such a requirement for several years, while the University of Wisconsin requires the same of its graduates if they wish to exercise their diploma privilege (for admission to the bar without examination) in that state. It may be that some modification of these courses would be required to meet new responsibilities, but the idea is worthy of consideration. Of course, a vigorous evaluation of actual effectiveness should be made prior to wide adoption of this proposal.

2. Prospects for Change

The legal world is presently in ferment. Among the more significant occurrences is the coming de jure acceptance of legal specialization. Self-designation by lawyers as specialists is permitted in Florida and New Mexico, and certification based upon experience, attendance at continuing legal education, or testing exists in California and Texas.[67] Law students and new admittees to the bar fear that courts will begin to permit only certified specialists to appear in criminal trials or even accept appointment as counsel for the indigent.[68] It may well be that law schools will be forced to offer specialization in the second and third years for those areas of the law having special certification (including criminal law).

De jure acceptance of specialization seems to be an unstoppable movement,[69] and criminal law will almost certainly be one of the areas of specialization. The corollary requirement that criminal defense lawyers will have to be specialists for court appointment as defenders also seems likely. To be sure, the great need for criminal defense lawyers mitigates against such a requirement, but the logic of the requirement will probably seem compelling to some courts. The manpower needs will then require that there be a continuing flow of new criminal defense lawyers with specialization credentials. While law school is not the only possible method of providing these lawyers, it is likely to be quickest and cheapest. Moreover, it might be expected that law schools will attempt to retain their present near-monopoly on producing laywers and will voluntarily move to insert specializations into the curriculum. At that point, a national criminal justice curriculum will exist in fact, just as a national general law curriculum does today.

Still other factors suggest the likelihood that pressure will be brought to bear upon law schools with respect to their preparation of defense and prosecution practitioners in criminal law. Indeed, there have already been several notable attacks on the independence of the law school curriculum. The Indiana Supreme Court has ruled that applicants to the Indiana bar beginning in January 1977 must have taken certain courses in law school or in continuing legal education programs prior to bar admission. In New York, the Clare Committee appointed by Chief Judge Kaufman has recommended that admission to the bar of the Federal district courts be conditioned upon completion of specified courses. The Chief Justice of the United States and the Chief Judge of the U.S. Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia have both forcefully made known their views that the quality of defense representation can and should be improved, and they have pointed to the need for changes in the law schools as necessary for improving the practitioner's skills.

In addition to these challenges, the courts can be expected to insist on higher standards of criminal defense on a case-by-case basis. This, in turn, can be expected to influence law students in their selection of law courses, particularly with regard to participation in clinical law programs. As the need for clinical law faculties is accompanied by their numerical increase, the quality of the substantive law program can be expected to be modified and increased. The existence of clinical law faculties has already had a positive impact on the criminal law program at several major law schools, including Boston University and New York University.

Adding to the pressures upon the curricula from law students will be the increase in the needs of criminal justice agencies for lawyers. The need for more prosecutors is apparent to virtually all who have studied the criminal courts in the United States. The need for more criminal defense lawyers has been similarly documented by the Boston University Center for Criminal Justice study of the implementation of the Supreme Court's decision in Argersinger vs. Hamlin.[70] This compares with the 5.8 percent emphasis on criminal law in law schools today. In the future, as the impact of Argersinger continues to influence career decisions of law graduates, the feedback from the profession can be expected to interact with the availability and desire of clinical faculty to teach criminal law courses and increase the emphasis on criminal law in the law school curriculum. The probability that criminal justice employers will prefer hiring graduates with criminal law experience and that court decisions will reinforce that preference increases the likelihood of that change in emphasis.

Opposed to all of these pressures are several factors underlying the present relative unimportance of criminal law in the law curriculum. The analysis earlier in this chapter of the variance in criminal law emphasis suggested that much of that variance could be explained by curricular inertia and the extent of the law school's resources. There seemed to be little relationship between variance in criminal law emphasis and variance in job opportunities or even in such historical phenomena as faculty hostility towards criminal law.

If this analysis is correct, the infusion of Federal money to stimulate law school interest in criminal law would have a high probability of success. The criminal justice model law curriculum suggested by this chapter may be useful in suggesting possible goals.

3. Recommendations

The model curriculum would require relatively modest change in the present curricular offerings. The biggest problems in its implementation are likely to be the lack of faculty to teach the desired courses and the lack of supplementary materials or casebooks.

Our question is, how can Federal funds, including those of LEAA and HEW (for clinical law programs, Title XI of the Higher Education Act), be utilized to bring about change?

The quality of an institution is merely the sum of its parts. For a law school, this means the quality of its curriculum offerings, faculty, library holdings, student selection and placements, and such interrelationships as the faculty-student ratio. Fiscal assistance for the improvement of an undergraduate law program has a limited ability to directly influence the institution, for the quality of the law school curriculum depends, in large part, upon its faculty's qualifications and interests. For example, if the school's goals include law reform, this is often implemented by faculty involvement in reform efforts or a curriculum emphasis on graduating "legal statesmen."

A plan for changing law schools to redirect some of their efforts into a greater (or higher quality) criminal justice emphasis must have as an initial priority ensuring that the faculty is capable of teaching in the mode desired

--and willing to do so. Support of this view is seen in the CLEPR grant requirement that clinical staff be eligible for tenure, for clinical staff faculties are likely to be more litigation and service oriented than are traditional faculties. Hence, CLEPR felt it necessary for the long-term viability of clinical programs to ensure that clinical faculties be accorded tenure status. It could not be taken for granted that traditional law faculties would unhesitatingly accept clinical faculties. But, there are important limitations on the manner in which law schools select faculty members and reward them with promotion and tenure. Note was taken earlier in this chapter, for example, of fears that law faculty members who engage in social science research, rather than law library research, may go unrewarded. It should be possible to mitigate this problem. The immediate goal, however, should be to upgrade the quality of today's faculties by such devices as summer programs for criminal justice faculty members, internships in criminal justice agencies, and increased resources for faculty research on criminal justice programs. (Such research should include law students working with faculty, plus participants from other disciplines, such as criminology, economics, and psychology.)

An integrating vehicle for many such proposals is found in the suggestions of Cavers and others that "law centers" be established to institutionalize the nonundergraduate programs of the law school. To the extent that the law center concept has a functional reality (i.e., is not merely a collection of separate functions with one common administration), it can adopt the CLEPR requirement of tenure eligibility for its staff and thus utilize external funding to change the law faculty's makeup and, eventually, the law curriculum.

While the law curriculum is the long-term concern, and the faculty is the intermediate concern, an auxiliary focus is on actions that can be supportive of curriculum changes and be of independent value.

a. Faculty research should be encouraged to take a systemic, rather than a common law, case approach to criminal justice. To accomplish this, materials should be developed to support the teaching approach suggested in this chapter. One suggestion is to sponsor a contest, similar to the American Bar Association's essay contest on constitutional law or legal history,[71] for the best casebook or supplement emphasizing the systemic approach to criminal justice education.[72]

b. Many criminal justice professional organizations are both interested in and able to assist law school faculties in gaining a better understanding of the realities of criminal justice operations. Such assistance is limited, however, by inadequate organizational budgets, but federal or other funds could be used to this end. One example of such assistance is the American Bar Association Section of Criminal Justice, which held a seminar for criminal law professors on the ABA and National Advisory Commission standards.[73] In addition to the practitioner expertise that the ABA and other organizations can provide, there is also a wealth of published materials, such as the ABA's comparative analysis of five different national models for the rules of criminal procedure (ABA, National Advisory Commission, American Law Institute, Federal Rules, and Uniform Rules).

c. Curricular innovations such as clinical law programs should be supported, both for their value in furthering professional responsibility and for their potential for influencing change in the nonclinical law curriculum.

d. Other areas in which Federal assistance might be fruitful are a study of the effect of bar examinations and alternatives, support for the National Client-Counseling Competition, assistance to social scientists for the study of criminal law in a law school education program, and study of how professional responsibility might be better taught in the context of criminal law courses.

e. Law schools should also be encouraged to provide assistance to criminal justice education and training programs. Of those schools visited, only one made any effort to systematize relations between the law school (or its criminal justice research center) and the undergraduate or graduate criminal justice education program. It should be noted, however, that at some schools the separation between the law school and the criminal justice program is the choice of the latter. Efforts should be made, nonetheless, by the law school to offer its expertise in law or criminal justice research to the criminal justice education program and to other educational programs with criminal justice components, such as social work or public administration. To the extent that the various state and federal funding agencies (e.g., LEAA, NIMH) can utilize this leverage on criminal justice educational programs, they might consider the desirability of using law school faculty to teach or to work with their students.

f. Finally, it should be recognized that many law students find their criminal law courses to be intellectually stimulating, but they nonetheless fail to consider criminal justice as a career. In part, this failure is related to factors external to the law schools: the limited positions available in prosecutor and public defender offices, and the low fees paid court-appointed attorneys in private practice. Many actions might be taken by law schools alone or in conjunction with criminal justice agencies and professional associations (e.g., NLADA, NDAAA to alleviate the career choice problem.

For example, positions are available to legally trained personnel in many criminal justice operating agencies, as lawyers (police legal advisors, correctional ombudsmen) or as management trainees. Most law students are not aware of these opportunities. One solution is to increase law schools' criminal justice placement activities by utilizing the experiences of law students in clinical programs with criminal justice agencies. However, more needs to be done. The Association of American Law Schools could establish a clearinghouse with national criminal justice organizations, such as IACP, ACA, NLADA, and LEAA, to stimulate better placement efforts. Similar local clearinghouse efforts might be made by a law school with the assistance of state planning agencies, who might also profit by the addition of law graduates to their staffs. Also, law students could collaborate with faculties to promote a wider perspective on criminal justice career opportunities.

CHAPTER VIII

Notes and References

1. An earlier paper that deals with the relationship of law schools to criminal justice concerns is Joseph J. Connolly's, "Law School Programs to Meet Criminal Law Manpower Needs," (1966), mimeo, prepared for the Airlie House Conference on manpower needs of criminal justice, held by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. Connolly's focus, however, is primarily upon clinical law programs and law internships in criminal justice agencies.

2. The particulars of this history are drawn from two principal sources: A.J. Harno, *Legal Education In the United States* (1953); and A.Z. Reed, *Training for the Public Profession of the Law* (1921), Appendix to Association of American Law Schools, *Proceedings of Annual Meeting 1971*, Part One, Section II, *Training for the Public Professions of the Law* (1971), edited by Kate Wallach.

3. See Society of Public Teachers of Law, Survey of Legal Education (1967).

4. It was not until the 1930's, for example, that the Indiana Supreme Court ruled that only lawyers could practice law in the courts, not withstanding a state constitutional provision suggesting otherwise.

5. The future-looking perspective of the case method requires judgment as to the inherent value of one rule of law over another, as well as a predictive sense of what courts will immediately decide. Hence, the case method requires a high degree of personal understanding of the law, an understanding that is usually provided lecturers by outstanding textbook writers. But it is the rare textbook that can combine what is with what will or should be.

6. P. Stolz, "Training for the Public Profession of the Law (1921): A Contemporary Review," in *Association of American Law Schools, Proceedings*.

7. "Modern Trends in Legal Education," *Columbia Law Review*, 64 (1964): 710.

8. Judge Jerome Frank was one of the earliers and ablest exponents of including practical experience in the law school curriculum. See, e.g., Frank, "A Plea for Lawyer-Schools," *Yale Law Journal* 56 (1947): 1303 ff. See also his "What Courts Do in Fact," *Illinois Law Review* 26 (1932): 761 ff.

9. The report of the project is found in *Proceedings of the Asheville Conference of Law School Deans on Education for Professional Responsibility*, Sept. 10-12, 1965.

10. Council on Legal Education for Professional Responsibility, Inc., Survey and Directory of Clinical Legal Education 1974-75 (1975), hereinafter cited as CLEPR Survey.

11. American Bar Association, Section of Legal Education and Admission to the Bar, Law Schools and Bar Admission Requirements: A Review of Legal Education in the United States, Fall 1975 (1976). Of the 163 ABA-accredited law schools, 129 are also accredited by the Association of American Law Schools. Some writers refer to the existence of 162 approved schools; these writers are counting the two programs of the University of Arkansas in two locations as one school. One other law school, the Judge Advocate Law School, is a graduate law program only.

12. See The Bar Examiner, 44 (1975): 114 and 115, for information on state bar admissions. The information herein, infra, on the various states' requirements for bar admission is from Rules for Admission to the Bar (1975), published by West. In a few instances, the information may be out of date or incomplete. The 11 states that permit graduates of non-ABA-accredited law schools to apply for the bar are Alabama, California, Florida, Maryland, Georgia, Massachusetts, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and Washington, Most of these states require that the law school be approved by the state supreme court, board of bar examiners, or state bar. In addition to the information found in Rules for Admission to the Bar, Bar Examiner statistics also show bar admissions from unaccredited law schools in three additional states: Hawaii (1 admission), Illinois (4 admissions), and Pennsylvania (5 admissions).

13. California requires a minimum of four years or 270 hours of study for an unaccredited part-time law school, and 864 hours of study for a correspondence school.

14. These are Mississippi (two years of law office study), Vermont (four years), Virginia (three years), and Washington (four years).

15. These are Maine (two years of law school and one year in a law office), New York (no specific combination specified), and Wyoming (one year of law school and two years in a law office).

16. The availability of part-time legal education in law schools was part of the controversy surrounding A.Z. Reed's study of legal education in 1921. See P. Stolz. See also, C. Kelso, The AALS Study of Part-Time Legal Education, Proceedings, 1972, AALS Annual Meeting, Part I, Section II (1972).

17. These are Delaware (5 months), Rhode Island (3 months or a training course given by state bar), and Vermont (6 months).

CHAPTER VIII
(continued)

18. Recent changes in the ABA accreditation standards now explicitly require study of the ABA Code of Professional Responsibility. See Approval of Law Schools: American Bar Association Standards and Rules of Procedure, Sec. 302 (a) (iii), (Amendment of August 13, 1974) (1973).

19. New York Court of Appeals, Rules, Sec. 520. 4 (c) (d).

20. Indiana Supreme Court Committee on Rules of Practice and Procedure, Proceedings on Rule 13 of the Rules of Admission to the Bar of Indiana by

21. Advisory Committee on Proposed Rule for Admission to Practice (United States Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit), "Final Report," 67 Federal Rules Decisions 159 (1975), commonly known as the Clare Committee.

22. E.G. Gee and D.W. Jackson, Following the Leader? The Unexamined Consensus In Law School Curricula (1975).

23. White, "Legal Education; A Time to Change," American Bar Association Journal 62 (1976): 355. See also, White, "Is That Burgeoning Law School Enrollment Ending?" American Bar Association Journal, 61 (1975): 202.

24. Ibid. This is based upon the legal education and bar admission statistics therein, taking into account the three years usually required between entry and graduation. While the calculation is not entirely satisfactory, the relative proportions should remain about the same.

25. The Bar Examiner.

26. White, p. 204.

27. Bar examinations, being written essays or multiple-question exams can not test interpersonal legal skills or ethical personality features. The near elimination of any clerkship requirements has meant that there is no real bar requirement that a newly-admitted lawyer be able to act like a lawyer, merely that he/she "think" like a lawyer.

28. See Kelso, "In the Shadow of the Bar examiner, Can True Lawyering be Taught?" Learning and the Law, 2 (1976): 39. Note that Kelso characterizes clinical law courses as being non-bar related, since bar exams test for knowledge of the law, rather than for practioner skills in applying knowledge. The advent of the multi-state bar examination, with its multiple choice questions, seems to have increased this reliance on testing for knowledge as compared to testing for "thinking like a lawyer," which essay tests permit.

29. P. Carrington, Training for the Public Profession of Law: 1971, in Proceedings, 1971 AALS Annual Meeting, Part I, Section II (1971).

30. H. Packer and T. Ehrlich, New Directions in Legal Education (1971): 21-24, 28-36.

31. W. Myers, Jr., et al. Law School Curriculum Study of the University of South Carolina Law School (Report to the Ford Foundation, January 1970 mimeo).

32. S. J. Schulhofer; Review of J. Goldstein, A. M. Dershowitz, and R.D. Schwartz, Criminal Law: Theory and Process (The Free Press, 1974); in Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology 66 (1975): 517.

33. E.g., George Washington University National Law Center, Washington, D.C. See Cavers, "Legal Services in the 21st Century," Learning and Law 1 (No. 2, 1974): 12 ff.

A distinction should be made between law schools teaching policy analysis as a method of predicting change in the law and law schools using teaching to advocate change (law reform).

34. See, in general, McElhaney, "Towards the Effective Teaching of Trial Advocacy," University of Maine Law Review, 29 (1975): 198 ff.

35. See Redmount, "The Transactional Emphasis in Legal Education," Journal of Legal Education 26 (1974): 253 ff. See also, White, "The Lawyer as Negotiator: An Adventure in Understanding and Teaching the Art of Negotiation," Journal of Legal Education, 19 (1967): 337 ff.; and Moore and Tomlinson, "The Use of Simulated Negotiation to Teach Substantive Law," Journal of Legal Education 21 (1969): 579 ff. Empirical support for the importance of interpersonal skills is found in Benthall-Nietzel, "An Empirical Investigation of the Relationship Between Lawyering Skills and Legal Education," Kentucky Law Journal (1975): 63, 323, 791-800.

See also, Redmount, "A Conceptual View of the Legal Education Process," Journal of Legal Education, 24 (1972): 129 ff. Savoy, "Towards A New Politics of Legal Education," Yale Law Journal, 79 (1970): 444 ff., suggests that the real goal and result of the use of the Socratic method is to "socialize" the law students into an acceptance of authority. David Reisman, in his article "Law and Sociology," in Law and Society (1976) p. 13 ff.

36. Case law reform is heavily dependent upon the predilections of a small group of individual judges; legislative reform, while often longer in time, is a more stable route, since legislative bodies are less likely to undergo such profound change in philosophy as that which occurred, for example between the Warren and Burger courts. Moreover, the systemic interrelationships of the criminal justice system and the need for substantive (programmatic) reform mitigate against dependency on case litigation, with its procedural due process target, for long-term reform.

37. Del Duca, "Continuing Evaluation of Law School Curricula--An Initial Survey," Journal of Legal Education, 20 (1968): 309 ff. For this survey, criminal justice courses were defined to include courses on criminology, police law, administration of justice, first amendment (obscenity law), judicial reform, military law, etc. Jackson and Gee (Bread and Butter) classify many of these courses under miscellaneous rather than criminal justice law and procedure. Hence, differences in findings can be expected.

38. See also R.S. Levine, Juvenile Law Faculty and Curricula of Accredited American and Canadian Law Schools (1975)who uses a more expansive definition of juvenile law courses as, for example, public education law--and found that 103 scholls had juvenile law courses.

39. CLEPR Survey.

40. D.W. Jackson and E.G. Gee, Bread and Butter? Electives in American Legal Education (1975).

41. Business law courses included corporation law, business associations, trade regulation, trademark, patents, securities law, and labor law. Excluded were courses dealing with property law, real astate, insurance law, environmental law, mass communications law, and other specialized business-related courses, which counsel of a corporation would not find necessary or moderately desirable. Consider Ralph Nader's views [in "Public Interest Law is Not Dead," Student Lawyer, Vol. 4 (January 1976) pp. 10, 14 ff.]: "[I] think that right now law schools are the ideological tools of corporate interests. Their curriculum is seriously tilted toward corporate legal needs and against the broader needs of small business and consumers. Their faculty is compromised by undisclosed consulting activities and moonlighting for corporations and corporate law firms. And the structure of support for many law schools comes from corporations, or from law firms affiliated with corporations, which do not exactly encourage law students to expand their horizons."

42. Large schools were defined as the 30 schools with the largest number of courses. Small schools were defined conversely. The number of courses was found to be the strongest predictor of the relative emphasis on criminal justice in the curriculum. Interacting factors were the age of the institution (small and new) and the relative prestige of the sponsoring university (small law schools attached to universities of repute or with high resources may draw upon that larger resource). There may also be some historical or ideological bias against criminal law as intellectually inferior or morally bad. This bias may be suspected but can not be proven without a site visit.

43. Field interviews at a number of law schools, including Boston University, Northeastern, Temple, Pennsylvania, New York University, Columbia University, Northwestern University, University of Chicago, and meetings with law faculty from University of Detroit, Franklin Pierce Law School, Western New England, University of California at Los Angeles, University of Texas, and Georggetown University.

44. S. Kadish and M. Paulson, Criminal Law and Its Processes, 3rd ed. (1975).

45. J. Vorenberg, Criminal Law and Procedures (1975).

46. J. Michael and H. Wechsler, Criminal Law and Its Administration (1940) incorporates much of the thinking found in Wechsler and Michael "A Rationale of the Law of Homicide," Columbia Law Review, 37 (1937): 701, 1261 ff.

47. P. Johnson, Criminal Law (1975).

48. G.E. Dix and M. M. Sharlot, Criminal Law (1973).

49. Y. Kamisar, W. R. Lafave, and J. L. Isrel, Modern Criminal Procedure, 4th ed. (1974).

50. A. S. Goldstein and L. Orland, Criminal Procedure (1975).

51. See F. Remington, D. J. Newman, E. L. Kimball, M. Melli, and H. Goldstein, Criminal Justice Administration (1969); F. W. Miller, et al., Criminal Justice Administration and Related Processes (1971).

52. CLEPR Survey.

53. For similar reasons, we do not discuss the various proposals for revising the basic structure of legal education. See Carrington; Sovern "The 4th Revolution in Legal Education," Learning and Law 1 (No. 2 1974): 26 ff. Stolz, "The Two-Year Law Schools: The Day the Music Stopped," Journal of Legal Education, 25 (1973), has described the demise of the two-year proposal for the present. Manning, "Law Schools and Lawyer Schools--Two--Tier Legal Education," Journal of Legal Education, 26 (1974): p. 379 ff. suggests that the trends towards specialization and criticisms such as the Clare Committee's report should lead to a modified two-year proposal.

54. Further evidence for this assumption lies in the inability of many attorneys to see the relationship between overcriminalization and the overcrowding of the courts and corrections system. That is, the abstractions of the jurisprudential issues in criminal law are not given any flesh and blood by reference to real world consequences.

55. "Sentences and Other Sanctions in the Criminal Courts of Baltimore, Chicago, and Detroit," Political Science Quarterly, 90 (1975): 617ff.

56. See, e.g., Annual Report of Kansas City Police Department (1973), and Annual Report of Los Angeles Police Department (1973). In Washington, D.C., the Institute for Law and Social Research has found in analyzing data from the PROMIS computer system that 65 percent of all filing arrests are discharged without a conviction.

57. For an example of this approach, see Professor Amsterdam's "Arranging Bail for the Criminal Defendant," Practical Lawyer (January 1973): 15 ff. This is not to say that criminal law should not be taught in the first year; the optimal course would be a combination of process and substantive law. This combination, optimal from the criminal justice perspective, stands in contrast to the realities of many law school curricula, that is, a required offering in criminal law with an optional course in criminal process. This seems a case of mistaken priorities. See also, Webster Myers, Jr. et al. The study group recommended that criminal process be taught rather than criminal law for its value as an initial exposure to inter-disciplinary handling of major problems. Discussion of the elements of crime would be taught at various points with an understanding of the criminal process at work and be of more value to them than a narrow analytical approach." p. 18.

58. See comment "Amendments to the Federal Rules of Criminal Procedure-Expansion of Discovery," Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, 66 (1975): 23 ff. for an illustration of the various substantive issues present in a procedural context.

59. To the extent that the concept of a "model" curriculum is disquieting, it should be noted that the course is the only component of the model not seen in law school curricula today.

60. Plea bargaining is our second choice for a unifying theme, particularly in view of its reality as plea/sentencing bargaining, for defendents plead guilty mainly in response to promises of sentencing leniency. Nonetheless, plea bargaining seems less desirable as a unifying topic than sentencing since the connection to correctional and criminological topics is less direct. However, if one were forced to pick only one criminal justice issue to discuss, plea bargaining would be the choice since there is little understanding of the many systemic factors influencing it. Processor Johnson's use of the preliminary hearing also has merit. Its limitation is, however, that it does not relate directly to the correctional segment of criminal justice.

61. M. Frankel, Criminal Sentences: Law Without Order (1973); L. Orland, Prisons: House of Darkness (1975).

62. See American Judges Association, Committee on Teaching of Trial Advocacy, "The American Law Schools Teaching Trial Advocacy in Law Schools: Final Report,"

63. See C. Kelso, "Adding Up the Law Schools: A Tabulation and Rating of Their Resources," Learning and Law, 2 (No 2 1975): 38 ff.

64. Over half of the law schools offering fewer than 50 credits have been accredited within the past three years.

65. If the figure of 385,000 lawyers is correct, these in criminal practice of other criminal justice employment probably account for between 10 to 15 percent of all lawyers. See Schwartz, "The Relative Importance of Skills Used by Attorneys," Golden State Law Review ( ): 321. Twenty-eight percent of attorneys surveyed included criminal law in their response.

66. See R. Gorman, "Proposal for Reform of Legal Education," University of Pennsylvania Law Review, 119 (1971): 845 ff.

67. Indiana Supreme Court Committee.

68. Puffer, "Specialization--A New Legal Direction: Good for Old Lawyers, Bad for New Ones?" *Barrister* 3 (January 1976): 57 ff.

69. See note, "Legal Specialization and Certification, "Virginia Law Review, 61 (1975): 434 ff. The basic question is whether and how specialization will be regulated, not whether it will occur.

70. The view of the courts in regard to determining the competency of counsel as a concommittant of the Sixth Amendment right to counsel seems to be shifting from the "mockery of justice" standard to one of "minimum standards of professional representation." Compare, U.S. v. Stahl, 393 F. 3d 10 (7 Cir. 1968) with Williams v. Twomey, 510 F. 2d 634 (7 Cir. 1975). A higher standard adopted in other federal circuits is that of "customary skill and knowledge," Moore v. United States, 432 F. 3d 730 (3rd Cir. 1970), which, if adopted by the Supreme Court, might limit the right of noncertified lawyers to represent indigents because they do not meet the "customary skills and knowledge" standards.

71. S. Krantz, *et al.*, *The Right to Counsel in Criminal Cases: The Mandate of Argersinger v. Hamlin* (1975).

72. One long-term consequence of this lack of "practical" education experience is that the law graduate never gains a theoretical or cognitive understanding of the importance of pretrial proceedings. The results may be seen in the failure by the individual practitioner to perform pretrial functions (see e.g., Feeney), the relative absence of continuing legal education courses on pretrial practice, the lack of legal scholarship on such topics as the probable cause hearing

73. American Bar Association, Section of Criminal Justice, *Summary Proceedings of Law Teachers' Conference in National Criminal Justice Standards*, March 13-15, 1975, processed.

CHAPTER IX

CONTINUING LEGAL EDUCATION FOR CRIMINAL LAW PRACTITIONERS

CHAPTER IX. CONTINUING LEGAL EDUCATION FOR CRIMINAL LAW PRACTITIONERS

The competence of legal counsel in criminal cases is one of the most important issues now facing the criminal justice system. As the Wickersham Commission and succeeding national studies of the "crime problem" have recognized, the prosecution and defense of accused violators of criminal law is at the heart of the criminal justice process. While law school provides the basic knowledge and skills required of the criminal attorney, it is essential that these qualifications be maintained and expanded.

The purpose of this chapter is to review and assess perhaps the most promising method for preserving and upgrading the competence of the criminal bar--continuing legal education (CLE). Three types of participants in continuing legal education are examined here: prosecutors, staff defense counsels (public defenders), and private defense attorneys. Other types of attorneys, for example police legal advisors or judges, are included when their professional responsibilities coincide with those of other criminal justice attorneys.

While continuing legal education may indicate general post-graduate efforts at self-improvement, the major emphasis in the present examination will be on structural programs established by the legal profession to prepare its members for advancement. Special continuing legal education programs may be provided by university law schools or by private for profit or non-profit firms. They may also be provided by bar associations, although generally an association will simply sponsor the program, which is then carried out under contract. The primary impetus for CLE programs is the bar association, which seeks to assist its members in meeting standards of performance. In certain instances completion of a CLE program may be a requirement for advancement; in several states such requirements are mandatory.

A. BACKGROUND OF CONTINUING LEGAL EDUCATION IN CRIMINAL LAW

The first continuing legal education program was sponsored by the Association of the Bar of New York City in 1915. It was followed in 1931 by the Cleveland Bar Association Institutes. CLE programs continued to be sponsored only by local bar associations until 1933, when Harold Seligson, a New York attorney, began a series of "Practicing Law" courses at the New York University Law Review office. These courses led to the establishment by the Bar Association of the City of New York of the Practicing Law Institute in 1938. In this same period, the Stanford Law Society in California was calling for a program of continuing education, a call which led to the recommendation by a committee of the California State Bar that CLE be adopted as a responsibility of the State Bar.

The need for continuing legal education was recognized nationally when the American Bar Association Section on Legal Education and Admission to the Bar joined with the Western Reserve University Law School in presenting a CLE program on the new Federal rules of civil procedure at the ABA convention in Cleveland in July 1938. By 1940, the ABA Section on Legal Education reported that 21 state bar associations had established committees on continuing education. It was also concluded that extensive CLE programs should not be carried out on the voluntary basis of the past and recommended the use of full-time instructors for its program. During the years 1940-45, the Section's efforts resulted in programs on civil procedure being provided through specialized institutes.

At the close of World War War II bar associations were called on to deal with the impending release of large numbers of lawyers from military service.

In response, the ABA Section on Legal Education joined with the Practicing Law Institute to develop a national refresher-training program for veterans. An important outgrowth of this project was a series of publications suitable as texts for such courses.

The ABA Section on Legal Education recommended establishment of its own continuing legal education program independent from the Practicing Law Institute. It also recommended establishment of a national ABA-sponsored agency to foster and support state and local bar activity to coordinate local CLE programs and to act as a clearinghouse. The ABA discussed these recommendations with the American Law Institute (ALI) and in 1947, the ABA recognized the ALI as the official body to organize, develop, and carry out a national program of continuing legal education. Management of the joint program was established through the ALI Committee on Continuing Education of the Bar.

The decade 1948-58 brought the establishment of staffed programs of continuing legal education in more than 45 states. The introduction of the Uniform Commercial Code in the mid-1950s, and the passage of a new Internal Revenue Code in 1954, created demand for CLE throughout the country. As the number of programs grew the ALI and the ABA began to promote ties between law schools and state bar associations in order to expand and improve the content of CLE.

The first National Conference on the Continuing Education of the Bar was held at Arden House in New York City, December 16-19, 1958. It reached the following conclusions:

1. CLE should be emphasized for newly admitted lawyers.
2. Emphasis in CLE on professional competence should be supplemented by inclusion of program elements emphasizing professional ethics (including law reform).
3. CLE programs should make greater use of professional staff.

4. Responsibility for CLE in each state should be placed with the state bar.

5. The need for specialty training should be emphasized.

6. The ALI-ABA Committee should establish national standards for CLE.

In the following 5 years, 17 state bar associations established positions for full-time, paid CLE administrators. A second Arden House Conference in 1963 recommended that the ALI-ABA Joint Committee on CLE prepare national publications for use by state organizations, that locally adapted materials should be provided through the ALI clearinghouse, and that law school participation in CLE become obligatory. Again, the need for specialty training was emphasized to give new lawyers information not provided in law school.

The most controversial recommendation of Arden House II was that CLE should be self-supporting financially. While CLE organizations in states such as New York and Michigan have consistently earned profits, the largest CLE program (California's) has not.

The two Arden House conferences provided an impetus to the ALI-ABA publication of a series of 10 monographs on the Problem of Criminal Law and Its Administration. The ALI-ABA Committee also published Amsterdam, et al., Trial Manual for the Defense of Criminal Cases, in 1967. While Arden House I was seen as relegating the law schools to an insignificant role in CLE, Arden House II incorporated the idea that law schools should have a primary responsibility in national CLE programs.[1] The report of the second conference noted, however, that many law schools were simply not interested in offering CLE programs to the bar. The 1967 Roundtable Discussion on the role of the law school in continuing legal education sponsored by the ABA found serious disagreement among its participants.[2] This issue was the subject of yet another conference on the role of law schools in CLE programs in 1973.[3]

During the 3 decades since World War II, the concerns expressed in CLE conferences and by ABA actions have focused principally on structural problems of formal continuing legal education programs and issues related to who should do what, what should be done, and the need for evaluation standards. Succeeding national conferences in 1967, 1968, and 1975 were more concerned with issues in the law.

The 1967 national conference was devoted to "Meeting the Needs of the Newly Admitted Lawyer."[4] Among the issues discussed were the options of apprenticeships, "bridge the gap" programs, and training or skill courses in the classroom. The option of changing the law school curriculum to provide practitioner skills was omitted from consideration. The 1967 conference recommended that a general practice course be included in CLE for those about to be licensed to practice. The content of the course was to be limited to "practice techniques and procedures and it was recommended that the course be initially available as an elective. If the course proved useful, it could later be required for admission to the bar.[5]

In 1968, the National Conference made the following significant contributions: (1) adopted Standards of Fair Conduct and Voluntary Cooperation as a first step toward accreditation as a means of improving the quality of CLE; (2) recommended a study of the goals of CLE, including a special study of increased professional and public responsibility; and (3) reaffirmed the 1967 call for general practice courses. For the first time, recognition was given to the needs of the judiciary for continued education and to the usefulness of CLE for lawyers engaged in civil or criminal litigation. The problem of adequate financial backing also resurfaced, and the need for study of funding was acknowledged. The training of paraprofessionals was also mentioned as a possible responsibility of CLE groups.

The 1975 National Conference was prompted by a decision of the American Bar Association to engage in an institutional program of assistance to continuing legal education. In 1947, the ABA had rejected any direct involvement in CLE, leaving that responsibility to the Joint Committee of the ALI-ABA--in practice, the ALI. In the following years, its avoidance of CLE eroded, as many ABA Sections began offering national institute programs of 2 to 3 days. In 1975, at the request of its Standing Committee on Continuing Legal Education, the ABA founded a Division on Professional Education. The Division's responsibilities were to include both CLE and judicial education, and its first effort was to be a Consortium for Professional Education whereby the ABA would develop "high quality, modular programming" and other services for the CLE efforts of state and local bars.[7] The modules were to include "written materials, video and audio cassettes and live presentations." In part, the 1975 conference was designed to introduce the consortium concept to the CLE universe.

In addition, the conference reported a consensus on the following issues: mandatory continuing legal education should be studied, but not adopted elsewhere until the experience of Iowa and Minnesota revealed its value; specialization plans in effect or contemplated suggested the need for mandatory CLE, but with more emphasis placed on experience and periodic testing. The conference also supported the use of new technologies in CLE, national standards for CLE (to be issued by an independent national commission not providing CLE services itself), and financial support for CLE by the bar to support the use of the new educational technologies.[8] Structural problems remain the major focus of those interested in continuing legal education, as reflected in the conferences on the subject.

B. CURRENT STATUS OF CONTINUING LEGAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

The concerns relevant to an analysis of the status of continuing legal education include: the types of providers, the quality and quantity of their programs, the identities of the recipients (for example, newly admitted lawyers, prosecutors, or defenders), and the importance of the criminal law effort relative to the total CLE program. These issues are discussed in the context of the need for CLE and other services, including the need for CLE standards. The impact of LEAA funding for CLE programs is also addressed, and, finally, some preliminary conclusions about CLE needs are drawn.

1. The CLE Context for Criminal Law Courses

Criminal law CLE does not exist by itself. Rather, it is, in most instances, only one of many activities of CLE providers. For this reason, it is necessary to examine the overall health of CLE providers in general before proceeding to a detailed examination of the status of criminal law CLE.

a. Continuing Legal Education Organizations and Courses. Continuing legal education organizations may be classified as national, regional, state, or local.

National CLE programs include those of the ALA-ABA Committee, the ABA and its sections, the Federal Bar Association, the National College of District Attorneys, the National College of Criminal Defense Lawyers and Public Defenders, the National Center for Defense Management, the National Institute of Trial Advocacy, the American Trial Lawyers' Association, the National Legal Aid and Defenders Association, the National District Attorneys' Association, the Practicing Law Institute, and various profit-making organizations such as Prentice-Hall and the Lawyers Cooperative Publishing.[9] In addition to these groups, a few major private law schools offer continuing legal education programs that appeal to a national audience. Of these, Northwestern University Law School's Short Course for Prosecution and Defense is the most important from the criminal law perspective.

According to the ALI-ABA Catalog, regional, state, and local continuing legal education programs are typically of two types. The most common are operated by the bar itself or through a corporate affiliate of the bar association. The second type is offered by a law school alone or with bar association sponsorship. Examples of the second type are found in 16 states: Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Georgia, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Virginia, and Wisconsin. Several of these programs are operated by the law school through an independent, non-profit organization. Usually the county or local bar association CLE programs do not have full-time staffs; as a consequence, their CLE programs are often episodic, without regularity or continuity. Nonetheless, their efforts account for perhaps 25-35 percent of all CLE activities, based upon information from California and Minnesota--the only jurisdictions where accurate data regarding criminal law CLE are available.

Many of the national and local providers have joined together in the Association of Continuing Legal Education Administrators (ACLEA), which represented 64 member organizations in 1975. Notable for their absence from the association were the National College of Criminal Defense Lawyers and Public Defenders, the Institute for Judicial Administration, and the Northwestern University Short Courses. Since the last two offer CLE programs only in the summer, their staffs do not have full-time CLE professional responsibilities. Their absence from the association does, however, point to the difficulty of collecting definitive information on CLE activities, particularly in the criminal law area.

The types of CLE course offerings relevant to the criminal law may be classified by content or by recipient. A content classification would include substantive criminal law, procedural law, "how to do it" trial advocacy, appellate advocacy, and courses focusing on the professional or public responsibilities of the lawyer. All of these classifications may be still further divided between national and state-local orientations.

Recipients of continuing legal education differ in their status, being either newly-admitted, experienced, or specialists. CLE organizations also provide special skills training to individuals who have passed the bar examination but who are required to take a special skills course before admission in certain states, such as New Jersey and Wisonsin.

b. Assessment of CLE. With respect to providers, perhaps the most controversial issue is the role of profit-making organizations.[10] Many non-profit providers are convinced that profit-making organizations should be discouraged from involvement in CLE because they tend to offer only profitable courses. This leaves the CLE "losers" to the non-profit organizations, creating significant financial problems and a danger that the non-profit organizations will be driven out of business, or out of specific CLE fields. Since criminal law courses are often CLE "losers," the role of profit-making providers is potentially important insofar as it involves the diversion of available LEAA and other government funding from non-profit to profit providers.

Another issue is the input from law school faculties to CLE programs. The low status of CLE among law faculties and the lack of non-monetary rewards (e.g., promotion or tenure) for CLE participation is a problem. In a few law schools there may be "special" CLE staff without faculty appointment (that is, they do not teach undergraduate law students), but a lack of faculty status makes it difficult to recruit higher quality staff. At worst, existence of such special staffs inhibits provision of regular law faculty inputs to the CLE curriculum.

The failure to link CLE programs to law schools exacerbates the problems resulting from an over dependency on instructors who depend upon tuition fees. While such faculty may have the advantage of including many practitioners, their teaching motivation may be more directed to gaining peer exposure than academic interest. Furthermore, because a practitioner faculty has limitations to the time it can commit, it will not be able to support CLE to the extent needed. The most significant effect of the lack of law faculty in CLE programs, however, is the loss of program quality. This is particularly noticeable in the criminal law CLE field, as can be seen by comparing the materials used at the Northwestern University Law School Short Courses for Prosecution and Defense with the materials used in many other criminal law CLE courses. The Northwestern materials are far broader in range (e.g., scientific evidence), as well as in depth. The materials on search and seizure are among the most extensive anywhere for the purpose.[11]

Another problem related to the lack of law faculty is the large size of most CLE courses, which tends to limit the extent of in-class discussion. In a 1976 survey by the ALI-ABA of criminal law CLE providers, only two of 30 providers reported class sizes under 30 students. For the remainder, class sizes ranged from 39 to 240.

There is the problem of cost, especially for new practitioners in criminal law. The CLE costs of many new lawyers practicing civil law are paid by their firms. However, many criminal lawyers are sole practitioners who must pay for CLE themselves. The result is that new lawyers may be discouraged from the practice of criminal law due to the high cost of preparation compared with the low potential for reimbursement.

2. Present Needs and Resources of Criminal Law CLE

Several sources suggest that approximately 10 percent of all CLE courses have a criminal law or procedure focus. The estimate is based in large part upon information in the ALI-ABA Catalog of Continuing Legal Education,[12] supplemented by information received from specific states, including the Minnesota Continuing Legal Education Board,[13] the Iowa Continuing Legal Education Board,[14] the Florida Self Designation Board,[15] the Texas Specialization Board,[16] and the California Specialization Board.[17] This information does not indicate whether present offerings of criminal law CLE are sufficient; it merely suggests that criminal law can be given more attention than is apparent in law schools.[18] Relative availability does not provide any answer to the basic questions about CLE: whether there is sufficient CLE to serve practitioner needs and whether the quality of CLE is sufficiently high.

a. Present Availability of Criminal Law CLE Courses. The simplest method of answering these questions about criminal law CLE is to examine the scope of courses currently available. Three sources for this information exist: the ALI-ABA Catalog of CLE courses, a special survey of criminal law CLE done by the ALI-ABA with NMS assistance, and information compiled for purposes of this study from states that mandate CLE either through criminal law specialization requirements or by requiring CLE of all attorneys.

Table VII-1 presents the incidence of the following CLE offerings in criminal law: substantive developments in the law; trial advocacy; preparation and trial of the criminal case; juvenile law; criminal evidence; "bridging the gap" programs for new lawyers; general practitioner courses (misdemeanor and moving traffic violations); and specialized courses dealing, for example, with representing parolees and prisoners, drug cases, psychiatry and criminal law, criminal conspiracy, uniform jury instructions, and Federal Rules of Criminal

TABLE IX-1.

1975 CLE COURSES REPORTED TO ALI-ABA CATALOG AND SURVEY

Subject	Number of Courses
Assigned Counsel	2
Bridging the Gap (partial criminal law content)	8
Evidence	15
Courses for General Practioners[a]	11
Courses for Juvenile Court Practioners	7
Recent Developments in Law	5
Specialization/Advanced Courses	33
Pre-Trial Functions	2
Constitutional Law	3
Trial Mechanics and Advocacy	22
Prosecution and Defense Office Management	6
TOTAL	108

[a] For example, "Defense of Misdemeanor and DWI Cases."

[b] For example, advanced criminal practice, representing parolees and prisoners. Two advanced courses for prosecutors are also included in this figure.

Source: Joint Committee of the ALI-ABA, Catalog of Continuing Legal Education Programs in the United States, 1975, Vols. 20 and 21.

Procedure. Special CLE programs in office administration for prosecutors and defenders were also reported, as were courses in constitutional law and pre-trial functions.

b. Need for Criminal Law CLE: An Analytic Model. The raw statistical data of Table VII-1 cannot be evaluated without reference to a comparative model. Using these same data in conjunction with the CLE typology of recipients developed above, a "model" CLE program would include two entry level courses: a "bridging the gap" program (how to handle a criminal case), and an introduction to juvenile court proceedings. In-service CLE programs would include: evidence; defense and prosecution of misdemeanor and drunk driving cases (criminal law and procedure for general practitioners); recent developments in the law; and selected criminal law for specialists, such as pre-trial strategy, negotiation, and trial mechanics. Both entry-level and all but specific specialized in-service CLE courses should probably be offered each year for criminal defense and prosecution in most states. In those states with comparatively small bars, periodic updating is not required as often, because of the limited number of new entrants each year. This assumes, however, that a level of competence has already been attained by the criminal law bar. Where this is not the case, the course model described also contains the basic elements of a CLE program designed to alleviate this problem.

Other types of CLE courses, including specific specialized criminal law courses, should be offered periodically, perhaps every other year. These types include

- constitutional issues in criminal law (for example, search and seizure);
- defending parolees and prisoners;
- defending and prosecuting drug cases;

- defending and prosecuting white collar crime;
- psychiatry for criminal lawyers;[19]
- criminal conspiracy cases; and
- scientific evidence (for example, lie detection).

In addition to these course offerings, CLE organizations might also provide specialized training for prosecutors and public defenders.

c. The Sufficiency of CLE to Meet Present Needs. Using the CLE content model, it can be seen that the training experience provided by CLE nationally is scanty. In only a few of the larger states, of which California is a notable example, do the available CLE programs approach the model.[20] The discussion below provides a more detailed analysis of CLE needs, distinguishing between entry and in-service CLE.

(i). Entry-Level CLE. Only in the state of Texas may it be said that there is sufficient entry-level training for the practicing attorney. In that state, the state bar and criminal defense lawyers have joined in an LEAA-funded CLE program that reaches over 1,000 lawyers each year. Only two other states have even a minimum number of such courses; in the 47 remaining states, there are no entry-level CLE courses.

While criminal law manuals may help novice attorneys, CLE courses are needed to provide supplemental information about local court procedures if manuals describing them are not available. The benefits of entry-level CLE include providing a learning method for practicing skills, allowing for a group experience that reinforces the attorney's confidence to represent criminal defendants, and (perhaps more significantly) acting as an inducement for young attorneys to enter the criminal law field. Entry-level training for private lawyers may thus also help increase the number of attorneys entering criminal law work. CLE can play also a useful role in efforts to retain qualified lawyers in criminal defense work. The absence of sufficient entry-level CLE should, therefore, be of major concern.

Juvenile training is necessary since there are differences in both substantive and procedural law between the adult and juvenile area and in methods of defense. The latter can be illustrated by reference to the need of defense attorneys to deal with parents in addition to the defendant in a juvenile proceeding, as identified in the IJA-ABA Project on Standards for Juvenile Justice, Standards Relating to Defense of Private Persons.

(ii). In-Service CLE. In states other than California, New York, and Texas, there are significant gaps in virtually all the in-service CLE elements. Many of the model's prescribed annual offerings--such as recent developments in law--are offered in eight or fewer instances. Even the most popular CLE program is offered only 15 times (Table VII-1). If all the trial-related CLE programs are combined (including trial practice, trial advocacy, and jury selection), they number 22 courses.

From Table VII-1, it may be inferred that the most significant role for in-service CLE programs is in providing training in the pre-trial responsibilities of counsel. The relative absence of CLE courses in this area may be partially compensated by their inclusion in CLE courses on trial preparation and in general practitioner-oriented courses. Nonetheless, the low priority given to the pre-trial functions of the attorney is in stark contrast to the relative infrequency of trial as a means of case disposition.

Comparisons should also be made of the relative emphases upon trial and pre-trial responsibilities given by public defender training programs. The NMS data (reported in Volume VI) for defender in-service and entry training show about a 50-50 split between pre-trial and trial courses for both types of training.

Some qualification of the need for additional CLE is possible. The ALI-ABA survey in 1976 received responses from 32 organizations, with a total of about 18,500 attendees in their criminal law courses (of 127,700 in all CLE programs). The respondents offered 81 of the 108 courses that the combined ALI-ABA data sources located. If one assumed that each course participant attended only one CLE course per year, it can be seen that fewer than one-quarter of all those needing CLE received it. The ALI-ABA survey data showed that the average CLE course length is 8 hours (one work day). If one adopts a mandatory CLE requirement of 15 hours, this is twice the length of the average course. Few CLE attendees average more than 15 hours per year. Hence an eight-fold increase in CLE would be desirable.

At the same time, it must also be recognized that not all criminal law practitioners require CLE. While all private attorneys do, perhaps 15 percent of all prosecutors and 20 percent of all public defenders have agency-provided training available, according to the NMS surveys of prosecutors and public defenders. In addition to agency-provided training, state-level training may also be available to prosecutors and defenders from a training coordinator's office or professional association. In either case, the training available will not totally eliminate the need for CLE. For example, neither training source usually includes juvenile court proceedings in its materials. Nor will either source provide the in-depth exposure that is available from the two national colleges. In recognition of the need for staff CLE, two-thirds of all prosecutors and public defenders attempt to assist staff attendance of nearly 50 percent of all staff attorneys at state-level training programs. Thus, the in-house training does not substantially reduce the need for CLE.

d. Quality of Attorney CLE. For purposes of this qualitative review, CLE programs are considered on two levels: national and statewide.

State programs include local and association-directed efforts for agency personnel.

(i) National CLE Programs. National CLE programs are sponsored by three types of organizations, those concerned solely with CLE, solely with criminal law CLE, and for whom CLE is only one of several activities. They include those of the Joint Committee of the ALI-ABA, the Practicing Law Institute, Northwestern University short courses, the National Colleges for Prosecutors and Defenders, the National Institute for Trial Advocacy, and programs of the national bar associations such as the ABA, NLADA, NDAA, and NAAG. Not surprisingly, the quality of national CLE programs varies almost directly with the organizational sponsor's degree of interest in criminal law CLE.

A second factor affecting quality is the extent to which the two fields of prosecution and defense are separately able to support training and attract competent personnel to provide training. In the NMS report on defense and prosecution training, it was reported that defenders show a higher interest in training than do prosecutors. To the extent that this is true, their greater level of concern may result in defenders' demanding greater quality for CLE programs than do prosecutors. On the other hand, prosecutors were reported to have a greater ability to pay for CLE than defenders, which might also affect quality. Greater ability of agencies to pay may be of lesser importance, however, than the fact that as reported there are substantially more private and publicly employed attorneys engaged in criminal defense than in prosecution.[21] Finally, it should be noted that law school professors who are involved in CLE programs are more likely to be interested in defense, since they may be involved in part-time criminal defense work while teaching law. The result is that national CLE programs are either almost solely or predominantly directed at the defense function (e.g., the PLI, ALI-ABA) or have dual programs for defense and prosecution (e.g., Northwestern University Short Courses). The major exception is the National College for District Attorneys.

The qualitative strength of the national CLE programs lies, then, in their ability to provide broad, in-depth programs. Drawing upon the facilities of the best law schools, some of the materials used by these programs are of superior value, often deserving independent publication.[22]

The major weaknesses of national CLE programs are their frequent dependence upon lectures and less commonly the use of volunteer faculty, both of which are attempts to reduce costs.[23] The use of volunteer faculty may result in more limited CLE offerings, since volunteers may not have the time to prepare in-depth materials.

(ii) State CLE Programs. CLE programs at the state and local levels are offered by state training offices, bar and professional associations, law schools, and independent (but bar-related) organizations. A national CLE organization may also act as a state CLE provider in its home jurisdiction, as PLI does in New York. The NMS has identified about 200 state and local CLE providers, and there are undoubtedly many additional local providers, such as city or county bar associations. Not all of these providers offer criminal law courses each year.

The primary determinant of the quality of the CLE seems to be the size of the jurisdiction served by the provider. In the main, large state CLE organizations were found to have higher quality programs than those in small states. And state CLE programs seem generally better than local ones. Apparently, the fiscal support that many larger CLE programs receive provides the basis for better quality programs.

The recent trend towards joint sponsorship of state and national CLE providers has potential for improving the quality of state CLE. In Florida, for example, the state public defender association combined with the National College to sponsor a program. A related development is the contracting by local or state defense or prosecution bodies for CLE services from the National Colleges. While such arrangements will undoubtedly improve the quality of CLE in the short-term, the long-term implications are uncertain, since they rest upon the stability of the National Colleges and the ability of the states to pay for these services.

In comparison to the national CLE programs, those sponsored by state or local providers do not seem as qualitatively high. Exceptions, of course, exist, for example, the CLE programs sponsored by the California bar (California Education of the Bar) and the Texas Bar and Criminal Defense Associations. Again, it should be emphasized that CLE programs associated with law schools in conjunction with the bar (e.g., Michigan) seem noticeably superior to those not having such resources.

But most state and local CLE programs have neither law faculty nor the economic resources to hire criminal law specialists to prepare CLE materials. In support of this statement, according to the ALI-ABA catalog and survey, only 15 out of over 100 state and national CLE providers surveyed were selling criminal publications in 1974-75. Failure to publish has often been found to correlate with lack of resources. Many state CLE programs in criminal justice are, in sum, notably lacking qualitatively in breadth and depth. As with national programs, lectures are the most frequently used methodology, with similar consequences. Many more state programs than national depend upon volunteer faculty with the consequent short-comings discussed above.

e. LEAA Support of Criminal Law CLE. The data from the ALI-ABA survey showed that size of CLE attendance varied with the level of tuition charged. Programs which offered CLE at little or no cost to the recipient (i.e., LEAA-supported) generally had large attendance for their total criminal law programs. Those charging higher fees (up to $250), generally had low total attendance. It would seem that the relatively low salaries paid to staff attorneys or fees earned by private attorneys do not enable them to pay for the needed amounts of CLE. Nor can underfunded publicly-supported agencies pay for high cost CLE from their budgets. As a result, public subsidy for criminal law CLE is not uncommon, either by LEAA or through the indirect subsidy of profits from non-criminal law CLE being applied to pay some of the costs of criminal law CLE. While not common, the NMS field visits did learn of several instances of civil law CLE subsidy for criminal law CLE. The ALI-ABA survey confirmed this finding.

Review of the ALI-ABA Catalog of CLE courses also shows that almost 26 percent of all criminal law courses in 1975 had LEAA funding. This estimate is probably inaccurate, but the degree of inaccuracy is unknown. For example, the program of the National College of Criminal Defense Lawyers and Public Defenders, funded by LEAA discretionary money, is not included in the ALI-ABA Catalog; it seems reasonable to assume that other providers of CLE with LEAA block-grant funds are also omitted. At the same time it must be recognized that not all CLE providers, whether supported by LEAA or not, are included in the ALI-ABA Catalog or survey. Assuming random distribution of LEAA support, the 26 percent estimate is useful for the limited purposes here.

LEAA funding appears at first glance to have had a significant effect upon the quantity of criminal law CLE provided. It is not clear, however, how much criminal law CLE is attributable to LEAA funding. Some of these programs might have been offered without LEAA funds. It has also been suggested that the availability of LEAA funds to some providers has driven others out of the criminal law field so that LEAA funded programs may merely substitute for non-LEAA funded programs.[24] According to the NMS Analyses of LEAA court funding, in FY 1975, such programs for prosecution and defense totaled nearly $30 million. No more than $5 million was given for training purposes in that same year, almost half of which was to state prosecution training offices, which engage in many other activities besides training, such as monitoring state legislation. Even if this is the case, LEAA activity in the field seems also to have prompted some providers to branch out from the normal course offerings to offer alternative and specialized crime law programs, such as the California CEB course on defending parollees and prisoners.

3. Present Status of Criminal Law CLE

The quality of CLE programs evaluated was determined based on the following criteria:

1. types of courses offered compared with the model
2. frequency with which courses are offered
3. depth of instruction--degree of detail covered
4. diversity of teaching methods used, including lectures, small group discussions, simulation-role playing, moot court and the like.
5. existence of an active publications program.

The data on 1975 CLE courses in Table VII-1 show, almost without exception, an insufficiency of program offerings. The most conspicuous lack is of programs on juvenile justice. Interestingly, about half of all courses on juvenile justice which were available were directed toward prosecutors. Less than one-third of all private and public attorneys engaged in juvenile law. Based on this it is apparent that a proportional imbalance exists between prosecution and defense for this type of CLE. In addition, prosecutors seem at the national level to give more attention to the specialized needs for juvenile justice CLE. Perhaps this reflects their greater level of training resources. It might also be inferred that juvenile justice CLE is a low priority for defense counsel.

A second concern is the disparity between pre-trial and trial CLE courses. The latter are emphasized almost to the exclusion of the former. Of course, many courses on trial preparation will also include some pre-trial functions, and this is also true for a number of the CLE programs listed under the specialization heading.

One explanation for this disparity is that continuing legal education is conventionally similar to in-service training. Some minimal level of performance and knowledge is expected of most CLE participants by program providers. The function of CLE is to upgrade the participants' abilities so as to make them akin to specialists. The difficulty is that nowhere is there found any educational experience sufficient to provide these basic skills, including those for pre-trial practice. Law schools do not often provide it, nor, as has been discussed, are there any great numbers of CLE programs at the entry level. The result is that these pre-trial functions are either not performed at all or may be performed badly. Indeed, the evidence for such a conclusion is quite convincing, whether one looks at the type of pre-trial activity (such as number of motions filed) or the quality of that activity.[25]

The first priority, then, is to increase the number of CLE courses directed to basic attorney skills, especially skills relating to pre-trial functions and juvenile court matters. Qualitatively, there seems to be a wide range of content and coverage in the CLE programs and courses. The great variety of types of CLE providers, from national organizations to specialized county bar associations, is one reason for this range. Perhaps the major impediment to qualitative improvement of criminal law is the low tuitions which the field will support. Private criminal law practitioners were found to be among the lowest paid members of the entire private bar, and public defenders and prosecutors are not commonly paid higher salaries than private practitioners earn in commercial or general law practices. Thus, it was not surprising to learn in the NMS field visits that criminal law CLE programs are sometimes subsidized by profits from other CLE programs, by government, and by private foundations.

The result of this inadequate funding is that many CLE providers cannot afford to offer higher quality program materials or have as faculty attorneys with academic backgrounds. Many CLE programs depend upon voluntary faculty, who gain in publicity rather than in consultant fees from their CLE activities. But, however qualified they may be, voluntary faculty are simply too busy to prepare a superior CLE lecture.

A partial solution to the problems arising from use of voluntary faculty may be found through the addition of paid CLE program staff support to prepare supplemental course materials. Present staffs, it was found, do not often have the time, except in the largest programs, to gain the needed expertise in criminal law to prepare such materials.

C. LOOKING TO THE FUTURE: TRENDS IN CLE

Although the present status of continuing legal education in criminal law is less than satisfactory, the prospects for positive change seem better in the near future. This is because the need for CLE and its availability are likely to depend upon changes in the legal profession as a whole. Several trends--such as mandatory CLE, specialization, or the trial-advocate proposal--relate directly to CLE. These will be detailed below. Others to be discussed include prepaid legal plans, the implementation of the Argersinger v. Hamlin decision, and other legal service delivery system changes which relate indirectly to CLE through their effect on the demand for lawyers in the criminal field. In addition, changes in the criminal justice system may also have an impact upon CLE. Also, the use of state and Federal funds to support criminal law CLE courses, programs, and providers will have important consequences for the extent and direction which CLE programs will take in the future.

During the past 2 decades, criminal law and procedures have become more complex--following major decisions in this area made by the Warren Court. This has produced an increasing demand for criminal law CLE. Few fields in the law have shown such tremendous change in complexity in this period. Therefore, the need for criminal law CLE can be expected to be high in the future. At the same time, other changes in the structure of the legal profession, for example, specialization, are likely to increase the availability of criminal law CLE.

1. Mandatory CLE

Two states, Iowa and Minnesota, currently require attorneys to attend CLE courses.[26] Interest in mandatory CLE exists in other states and the Wisconsin mandatory CLE rules will take effect in January 1977.[27] While the movement toward mandatory requirement is growing, the reasons for this vary among states. For example, mandatory CLE was adopted in 1975 in Iowa, as a result of a campaign by public interest groups. After this experience, bar officials in other states may be motivated to introduce mandatory CLE as an alternative to more far-reaching proposals by other public interest groups for periodic reexamination of attorneys.[28]

Although mandatory programs have been in existence for only one year, several problems have already surfaced. One problem voiced by the Minnesota bar was whether there is need to certify programs on a course-by-course basis. Since not all components of an annual program are necessarily educational, extensive review is required to determine what is "educational" for purposes of the state CLE requirements. In Iowa, however, the entire program of an approved CLE provider can be certified, without the course-by-course review provided in Minnesota.

Three common criticisms of mandatory CLE can be seen in the literature. First, a mandatory requirement cannot guarantee the motivation of attendees. Not only is coercion insufficient to insure interest in learning, but compulsory attendance may also adversely influence the interest of otherwise voluntary attendees. Secondly, because mandatory CLE is not directed to the specific needs of individual lawyers, the need to meet mandatory requirements may discourage individuals planning their educational programs in accordance with career desires. Thirdly, mandatory CLE is criticized for failure to test its students to determine the extent of learning. Indeed, even attendance at a CLE is not an enforced requirement, since an affidavit of attendance serves for purposes of meeting attendance requirements and no check of the truth of the affidavit is made. Thus, mandatory CLE may be criticized for neither attempting to identify substandard attorneys, nor creating realistic incentives for improvement.[29]

As for the future of mandatory CLE, the consensus of the ABA National Conference on Continuing Legal Education in November 1975 was that mandatory CLE should not be adopted by other states until the experiences of Iowa and Minnesota have been evaluated.[30] The fact of endorsement or nonendorsement by the Conference is unimportant except to the extent that it reflects the disinclinations of the bar officials in the majority states to push for mandatory programs.

The future of mandatory CLE seems limited by its value as a solution to the problem of incompetent attorneys compared with the value of specialization proposals. In three of the four states that have adopted specialization proposals, CLE is a part of the program. The advantage of mandatory CLE in a specialization context is that it helps to ensure that the CLE courses taken are by an attorney because they are relevant to his or her needs, rather than because they fulfill a requirement. If most private lawyers are covered by mandatory requirements in the specialization programs, pressures for mandatory CLE without a specialization focus will be reduced. If this does not prove to be the case, the future of mandatory CLE will probably be brighter.[31]

2. Specialization

Specialization plans may be of two types: self-designation or certification. Certification differs from self-designation in that the state must actively certify that the individual is a specialist rather than passively permitting his or her self-designation as a specialist in telephone directory advertising or other communications. In both instances, however, the major point leading to their adoption is that such plans permit lawyers to advertise their "specialty" to the public.[32]

Because of the need for quality controls, state certification processes may include mandatory CLE, with examinations for lawyers to be certified as specialists. Mandatory CLE without examination is the case in Texas, while examinations are required in California. These are the only states with certification procedures today.[33] Both require peer ratings and periodic recertification.

Specialization through self-designation does not necessarily imply mandatory continuing legal education. Both New Mexico and Florida permit advertising by attorneys as specialists, but they differ in that Florida requires CLE (10 hours per year).

In California, certification requires that the applicant have 5 years of practice, and 25 days of jury trial experience; the applicant must also have been principal counsel of record in five felony jury trials and five other jury trials, and in 40 additional criminal or juvenile matters. Within the past 5 years, the applicant must have spent one-third of his or her time in the practice of criminal law, attended continuing legal education programs, passed a written examination (unless accepted under the "grandfather clause"), and had experience as principal counsel in two of four areas, including brief writing. Also required are trial experience at habeas corpus or similar proceedings, 10 additional jury trials, and 3 years of full-time practice in criminal law.[34] Applicants for certification in 1976 are required to have not less than 42 hours of CLE attendance during the 3 years preceding; for recertification they must have had 36 hours of CLE, of which no more than 12 hours may be counted from any calendar year.

The response of the California bar to these strict standards has not been overwhelming. As of March 1, 1976, only 900 of 50,000 lawyers have applied for certification as criminal lawyers.[35] Of these, about 700 had been certified as criminal law specialists out of about 2,000 certified specialists in three fields: workmen's compensation, taxation, and criminal law. There are an estimated 7,500 lawyers in criminal practice in California, of whom probably 4,500 are in private practice. Thus, fewer than 10 percent of all lawyers engaged in criminal defense work are certified in California.

In comparison, Florida (with a bar of only 13,500) has about 550 lawyers self-designated as criminal law practitioners--often as part of a general law practice.[36] Thus, Florida, with a bar one-quarter the size of California's, has nearly as many lawyers registered with the state as private practitioners of criminal law.

The key difference between the Florida and California plans lies in the latter state's requirements of extensive trial experience and a written examination. The requirement for a written examination arises from the fact that continuing legal education courses do not have their own examination procedures, and mere attendance does not insure competency in CLE course content. Course examinations are nonexistent because attendance at CLE programs has until recently been entirely voluntary. It may be, as mandatory CLE spreads, that more programs will institute examination procedures. The California certification program did not originally have an examination requirement; the requirement was added after review of the program's operation.

As for the likely future combination of specialization and CLE, as indicated above, both Florida and California require CLE, as does the Texas certification plan. Only New Mexico's self-designation plan does not include a mandatory CLE component. Overall, it seems unlikely that the New Mexico plan will be widely followed, since the inclusion of mandatory CLE seems essential to the specialization concept. It seems more likely that a variant of the Florida plan would be more acceptable to the profession as a middle ground between the California and New Mexico plans.

Some form of specialization appears inevitable. A modified Florida-type of self-designation plan with CLE required of "specialists" may have the most appeal to state bars, and hence to the courts, as they consider the future of specialization.[37]

3. Trial-Advocate Specialization

One alternative to the criminal law specialization plans discussed above in Section 2, is the proposal for imposing certification requirements on all trial lawyers. This proposal derives from the many public statements of Chief Justice Burger[38] and others who have expressed doubts about the quality of trial advocacy in the courts.

These criticisms are similar in content, if not in tone, to the many recent court decisions holding the level of competence in particular criminal cases to be unconstitutionally low. While these decisions do not necessarily call for trial-advocate certification, such a result may be inferred.

As a result of these two sources of pressure, a committee appointed by Chief Judge Kaufman has recommended to the U.S. Second Circuit Court of Appeals that the district courts of the circuit set specific educational criteria for new applicants to their bars.[39] The recommended courses include evidence, civil procedure, criminal law and procedure, professional responsibility, and trial advocacy. These course requirements could be met through either law school attendance or continuing legal education. To the extent that law schools do not or cannot provide their students with those courses required by the Clare Committee, the problem then becomes one for CLE.

Almost all applicants to the bar have completed most of the suggested course requirements. The NMS analysis of law school education in this volume indicates, however, that some law schools do not offer a separate course in criminal law. Moreover, many criminal procedure courses really focus on procedural problems in constitutional law and are not in any way intended to be practitioner oriented, in the way that the "how to do it" content of a civil procedure course is. It may be concluded, therefore, that merely calling a law school course "criminal procedure" may not accomplish the Clare Committee's objectives.

The suggested requirements for courses in professional responsibility and trial-advocacy present even more difficulties to the law school. In many schools, professional responsibility is taught in the "pervasive" manner; that is, there is no required course on professional responsibility and ethics. Instead, all law courses are expected to include professional responsibility matters or materials. The result is that many students graduate from law school without ever really having had to think through ethical questions.

This failure is a major factor underlying the clinical law movement, which premises that law students who face real clients will also thereby face, personally or vicariously through class discussion, live ethical problems. In this way, it is surmised, ethical concerns will be more meaningful to clinical law students than to those taught ethics exclusively in a classroom setting.

Little need be said about trial-advocacy experience of law students, except that the high cost per student has meant that few students receive such experience. In addition, most law students receive little or no instruction on such topics as interviewing clients, witness counseling, and negotiation. Some receive pre-trial and trial experience through clinical law courses, but it is unclear whether clinical experience under faculty supervision would qualify as the trial-advocacy experience recommended by Judge Kaufman's committee.

It seems, then, that law schools would have great difficulties with the Clare Committee's recommendations were they to be adopted by the courts. The implications for CLE are not as clear, however. It is difficult to quarrel with the goals of the sponsors of the trial-advocacy proposal if their concern is that law graduates should be prepared to practice law before they enter the courtroom. Leaving aside the question of whether the trial-advocate proposal is the most efficient way of attaining this goal, the difficulty is that this does not seem to be what the proposal would accomplish, were it adopted.

The sponsors of the proposal indicate that their focus is the problem of competence of counsel in the courts.[40] This problem is compounded, however, by the incompetent attorneys presently practicing in the courts who would be exempt from the rule's application. Nor does the proposed rule deal with the problem of those who, once admitted to practice, fail to maintain their competencies, for whatever reason.

Thus, whatever the merits of the trial-advocate proposal might be in solving the problem of law school graduates lacking courtroom competence, the proposal is engulfed by unrealistic assumptions about the reasons for incompetent counsel. And, there might be a danger that its adoption would lead to abandonment of other attempts to resolve the problem of incompetent counsel. Despite the merits of the trial-advocate proposal, there are risks associated with the proposal. High among these risks are a possible reduction in the size of the manpower pool available to defend criminal cases. The Committee's recommendations, for example, take no account of the possibility of training for newly-graduated lawyers for public defender staffs as a means of preparing them for criminal law work. Nor does the rule take into account the need for private criminal lawyers, which often is met by use of young, inexperienced lawyers--the heart of the trial-advocate problem. The solution lies, therefore, with noneducational system changes such as merit selection of judges,[41] elimination of trial de novo procedures, strengthening of the bar disciplinary process,[42] and other reforms associated with strengthening the crimnal law bar. These include paying adequate fees for assigned counsel and removing the judge's power of punishment and reward of counsel performance through the court's appointment powers. The benefits of the trial-advocate proposal can only be realized once thse other reforms are accomplished.[43]

The implications of the trial-advocate concept for continuing legal education seem minimal at present. In addition, it should be noted that much of the concern over the trial-advocate proposal has been raised because of its potential impact upon the law schools. Only if the proposal were adopted and the law schools were found unequal to the challenge would continuing legal education be directly affected.[45]

4. The Legal-Services Delivery System

Changes in the system by which legal services are delivered are important because of their potential for increasing the number of lawyers engaged in criminal law practice. To the extent that such increases occur, it can be expected that the additional lawyers will demand more CLE in criminal law. The increase in the demand for CLE may be greater than the additional numbers of lawyers might suggest, due to the rise in the standards of the criminal bar that would accompany such changes.

The legal services delivery system may changein the next decade in three ways: first, through the expansion of prepaid legal services (insurance) plans, which commonly include a criminal law component; second, by "recycling" of tort lawyers into criminal law practice--this would include tort lawyers affected by the passage of automobile no-fault or medical malpractice legislation; and thrid, through the expansion of public support for criminal law (prosecution) attroneys' under LEAA or through implementation of the Supreme Court decision in Argersinger v. Hamlin[47] requiring defense counsel in misdemeanor cases where there has been a sentence to incarceration. The impact of these changes upon CLE will be indirect; one possibility is to use CLE as a mechanism to promote recycling of tort lawyers into criminal lawyers.

D. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The initial point of reference for the earlier discussion about the current status of criminal law CLE was that about 10 percent of all CLE is related to criminal law practice. Evaluative judgments as to the need for additional CLE were based on the types of courses offered, and indicated several spedific areas of concern, including lack of adequate coverage for juvenile court practice and for pre-trial responsibilities.

Some overall assessment of CLE need is possible, for in contrast to the 10 percent of CLE given to criminal law is the fact that nearly 20 percent of all attorneys are engaged, at least partially, in criminal law work. Estimates of the numbers of lawyers attending CLE programs range from 10 to 25 percent. And if the 15-hour CLE requirement of those states having mandatory CLE is taken to be an accurate indicator, the increase in CLE that is needed would be at least a factor of 8 over the present amount.[48]

This estimate of an eight-fold increase in CLE assumes, however, that the present patterns for providing CLE will remain stable: that is, the number of attendees per class will remain constant, as will class length. Changes in the proportional importance of CLE course topics are, however, expected. Not all courses require an eight-fold increase. To the extent that the market would not support such an increase or overabundance, proportional redistribution of CLE course offerings will then occur as CLE becomes more available.[49]

As an alternative to such a large increase in CLE, better use might be made of present efforts. Of particular interest is the use in several states (e.g., Michigan) of videotaped and televised CLE courses. Televised courses may be combined with telephone communication so that participants can ask questions or make comments. It is impossible, however, to estimate the reduction in the need for CLE that would result from improved planning or greater use of technological innovation. Thus, the estimate that an eight-fold increase is needed remains unchanged.

The first concern in planning to improve criminal law CLE is to determine the reasons for its present inadequacy. In so doing, it should be noted that the 10 percent share of all CLE given to criminal law is ample testimony that the criminal law field is not intentionally being overlooked.

As for the factors that are operative, the first concern is the failure of the development of a market for criminal law CLE comparable to the need for lawyers in the criminal justice system. This failure in market development takes two forms. The first is the unavailability of enough criminal lawyers, be they defense or prosecution.[50] The second is the related problem of the low fees or salaries paid to criminal law attorneys by the government (private retained counsel being somewhat more difficult to categorize). Because of the extreme effect these problems have on the criminal law bar, their alleviation would contribute much to the solution of the CLE problems here discussed.

A factor potentially more amenable to manipulation involves the motives of the providers of CLE courses. Prominent among these providers are the bar associations that offer CLE as a service to their members. A comprehensive plan for criminal law CLE must assume that bar associations presently offering courses in the criminal law field will continue to do so. They could not easily be replaced, nor should they be. Bar associations provide a convenient vehicle for transfer of learning through CLE. Their disappearance from the field would require costly replacements for both their administrative assistance and their low-cost recruitment of CLE faculty. Thus, if present offerings of bar associations are sometimes inadequate, that merely requires that efforts be directed to upgrade such programs, rather than replacing them. Should CLE be made mandatory in additional states and higher fees and salaries be allowed, the demand for higher quality CLE programs would increase.
Based on discussion earlier in the paper, such an optimistic outlook for CLE seems unwarranted, however. The need for increased high quality criminal law exists today.

The materials used in some current CLE programs are of great value--for example, the ALI-ABA Trial Manual and the Texas Criminal Defense Lawyers project--the Federal Criminal Practice Manual.[51] The National Institute of Trial Advocacy has provided an example for how to teach the skill components of a lawyer's courtroom tasks. The two LEAA-funded National Colleges for prosecutors and defenders have both begun comprehensive CLE programs for their respective constituents.

The need is to transfer this superior quality to local CLE providers.[52] Once this is accomplished, and only then, can efforts be made to expand the total availability of CLE. Since quality CLE is expensive, the primary need is for sufficient fiscal support for continuing legal education. A derivative need is for a sense of how to spend the funds--those available at present and those likely to be available in the future.

The next step in determining how CLE might be increased in quality and quantity is to appropriately allocate responsibilities among different types of providers. One possible allocation is for national providers to offer CLE programs on topics of national importance that are not likely to be covered well at state and local levels. Prosecution of organized crime is one nationally important topic for which the market in a given area is so restricted that state and local providers cannot be expected to cover it to the extent that its importance dictates.

For many nationally important CLE topics, however, such as the Federal Rules of Criminal Procedure, there is a large local market that will attract courses by state and local providers. In such instances, responsibilities could be divided between national providers and state and local ones. For instance, national providers might publish materials, textbooks, and audiovisual instructional aids to supplement the work of state and local providers.

437

For non-national topics (or special audience courses), the state and local providers can be expected to bear the main burden of insuring the availability of criminal law CLE to their local bars. Some examples of this are courses on new state law developments, CLE for newly assigned counsel, and "bridge the gap" courses for recent law graduates. Even with these courses, some national assistance to local providers would be useful. For example, virtually all criminal law CLE programs would be aided by having the ALI-ABA's Trial Manual for Defense of Criminal Cases for their attendees.[53] Other types of assistance include consultation, central library repository, and many other activities characterized under the rubric of technical assistance.

The need for national assistance to local CLE providers varies from negligible (in the case of strong providers such as the California CEB) to substantial, in the cases of such weak CLE providers as exist in a majority of the states. The goal should be to stimulate weak state and local providers so that they can be as self-reliant in their criminal law operations as the size of the local bar permits.

Two conclusions can be drawn from this analysis. First, there is a need for a programmed response to the challenge of upgrading CLE providers at all levels. Care must be taken not to strengthen national providers at the expense of the local ones. At the same time, the need for national-level assistance to local providers must be recognized. As assistance is given, the need for most types of national assistance will decrease, but the need for national coordination or supplemental publications will remain. A balanced program to develop CLE provider capabilities should include all these factors.

A problem with this analysis is that it fails to consider the need to ensure that support for CLE providers from LEAA is coordinated so that the impact of discretionary grants to national providers does not outweigh that of block grants to state CLE providers. Unless this is done, there is a possibility that national providers would soon all but replace state providers of criminal law CLE. The required coordination might be done through guidelines to the LEAA State Planning Agencies (SPA) for incorporation in state comprehensive plans or by restricting discretionary grantees in their competition with state CLE providers. Needless to say, these suggestions are preliminary only and are merely suggestive of possible solutions to an ill-defined problem.

A final consideration is to determine what specific activities should be promoted through inclusion in LEAA's criminal law CLE program supporting material on professional responsibility in criminal law and the other topics discussed earlier, such as trial-advocacy CLE and programs for novice assigned counsel, and defense of probationers, parolees, and prisoners. In accordance with the 1975 CLE conference recommendations, consideration should be given to the development and implementation of CLE standards with LEAA funds. Grants to law school faculty members for developing CLE material would further long-term law school support for CLE. The establishment of a National College of Continuing Legal Education by the Association of American Law Schools should be considered by LEAA as a means of aiding both CLE and law school education.

In addition to program support, LEAA should focus on evaluating CLE. Experimentation with examinations as part of CLE courses should be undertaken. There is a need for funding of CLE technology, such as equipment for video tape and television hookups. In addition, LEAA-funded research on the value and costs of specialization and mandatory CLE should be encouraged. There is also a need for a clearinghouse of CLE materials in the criminal law field.

Research is needed on alternative means of efficiently bridging the gap between law school and practice. This might include comparing clinical law school courses; skills and methods courses, such as those in New Jersey and

Wisconsin; and improved bar examinations. Other innovative possibilities include expansion and replication of the National College of District Attorneys' home study program for prosecutors in small offices; support of agency efforts to fund staff attendance at CLE programs; tying funding for personnel hiring to a CLE attendance requirement; making libraries of CLE materials (books, cassettes) available to lawyers desiring self study materials; and better dissemination of CLE information to local practitioners.[54]

In theory, continuing legal education is the most promising single method of assuring the continuing competence of lawyers. This is more true for private practitioners than it is for those who practice criminal law as public employees and who may receive agency training for their responsibilities. Even for the latter group, however, continuing legal education is more prevalent than agency-provided training. The need for CLE is far greater, however, than its availability. Because of this, the need for Federal support of continuing legal education far exceeds the level of such Federal support today. But for Federal support to be most useful, Federal funding should be preceded by careful planning that takes into account the diverse needs for CLE, the different capabilities of various providers, and the probable future of alternative paths other than voluntary CLE to ensure the competence of counsel. With these cautions, Federal support of continuing legal education could make a significant contribution to the establishment of an efficient and equitable system for the administration of justice. As the Task Force on Courts of the President's Crime Commission pointed out in its 1967 report,[55] continuing legal education is indispensable to efforts to improve the quantity and quality of lawyers engaged in criminal law work.

CHAPER IX

NOTES AND REFERENCES

1. See "Roundtable on Continuing Legal Education," *Journal of Legal Education* 20 (1968): 612; and Casner, "The Arden House Conference Conclusions, *Journal of Legal Education* 20 (1968): 620.

2. *Ibid*., p. 612 ff.

3. See "CLE and the Law Schools," ALI-ABA Review (August 2, 1974), Installment 1, report of the proceedings of the conference held by the Joint Committee and the Association of American Law Schools on October 20, 1973.

4. See Joint Committee of the the ALI-ABA, *Meeting the Needs of the Newly Admitted Lawyer: A Proposal for General Practice Course* (1967).

5. *Ibid*., pp. 5-6.

6. *Goals for CLE and Means for Attaining Them*, Report of the 1968 National Conference on Continuing Legal Education, October 11 to 13, 1968 (1969).

7. American Bar Association, "Consortium for Professional Education," (1975) (information flier distributed at ABA National Conference on Continuing Legal Education, November 10-12, 1975).

8. "National Conference on Continuing Legal Education Issues Final Statement with Recommendations," *American Bar Association Journal* 62 (January 1976): 210-211.

9. The NMS review shows that for-profit organizations are of little importance in criminal law CLE, except possible as sources of textbooks.

10. Based on NMS discussions with participants at the ABA conference on CLE in November 1975.

11. Copies of the materials used at Northwestern, which are not available to the general public, were made available to the National Manpower Survey by Professor Inbau, director of the Northwestern program.

12. Joint Committee of the ALI-ABA, *Catalog of Continuing Legal Education Programs in the United States* (1974 and 1975), Volumes 19, 20, 21 and 22.

13. *Index to Courses* approved by Minnesota Continuing Legal Education Board (N.D.) and information supplied to the author by Douglas H. Heidenreich of the Board on March 1, 1976; supplemented by information from John Wirt of the Minnesota Continuing Legal Education.

14. Telephone conversation with Ron Kayser, Iowa Continuing Legal Education Board, March 4, 1976.

15. Telephone conversation with Sylvan Strickland, Florida State Bar Association, March 1, 1976.

16. Telephone conversation with Gene Caven, Texas Specialization Boards, March 1, 1976.

17. Telephone conversation with James Kovacs, California Specialization Board, March 1, 1976.

18. In law schools about 6 to 7 percent of the courses emphasize criminal law and related topics.

19. This and the course on defending prisoners might be offered in conjunction with courses dealing with defense of the mentally ill, since there is a functional overlap.

20. ALI-ABA Catalog of CLE Programs.

21. According to the Institute for Research on Poverty of the University of Wisconsin, 41,300 private attorneys engaged in criminal defense activities in 1972. The National Legal Aid and Defenders' Association estimated that there were 6,000 public defenders in 1975. In contrast to these figures the NMS estimated, based on Census data, that there were 19,000 prosecuting attorneys in 1975.

22. Indeed, the two independent CLE programs of the ALI-ABA and PLI do have separate publication programs, making available some excellent books and manuals--for defense lawyers, primarily, but also of some value to prosecutors. The other CLE programs do not generally offer their materials for sale to those not enrolled. A derivative concern here is for duplication of effort (e.g., many of these organizations have independent material on search and seizure case law) but this is primarily a problem of permitting state CLE programs to copy and use national CLE program materials as part of a national effort to coordinate CLE activities, and will be discussed later in this report.

23. As for the dependence of national CLE programs upon lectures, only one program is not so included--that of the National Institute for Trial Advocacy (NITA). The NITA program has a residential curriculum in Colorado, which uses role playing and simulations and other training methodologies to teach its students courtroom competencies. It is a relatively small program, however, having only 22 students in two training sessions lasting three weeks each. The American Bar Association is adapting the NITA materials for regional programs that would provide 9 rather than 15 days of instruction and will result in a major increase in its use.

    Note should be taken, as a caveat to the ABA reduction in program time, that the 1974 evaluation of the NITA suggested that there was insufficient attention paid to pre-trial preparation tasks such as investigation, discovery, and witness preparation as a prelude to courtroom advocacy.

24. Letter from William Carroll, California CEB, dated November 18, 1975. Similar comments were offered by Tom Heeney, Practicing Law Institute in an NMS discussion in September 1975.

25. Graham and Letwin, "The Preliminary Hearings in Los Angeles: Some Field Findings and Legal-Policy Observations," UCLA Law Review 18 (1971).

26. In addition to Iowa, Minnesota, and Wisconsin, mandatory CLE rules are being drafted in the states of Kansas, Maryland, New Mexico, Ohio, and Washington.

Iowa Supreme Court Rule 123, Continuing Legal Education of the members of the Bar of Iowa; Supreme Court of Minnesota; Order No. 43295, Rules Relating to Continuing Professional Education (April 3, 1975).

27. NMS communication with E. Moser, March 1976, Wisconsin State Bar Association. The Supreme Court of the state-adopted mandatory CLE in principle in September 1975. Information on the implementation date was received from Meyer Kramer of the Joint Committee of the ALI-ABA.

28. Personal communication at ABA National Conference on Continuing Legal Education.

29. See in general C. C. Bengaman, "Some Wise Words About Continuing Legal Education," Learning and the Law, 2 (1976): 22, for listing of the pros and cons of mandatory CLE, as well as some additional recommendations for dealing with the problem of attorney competence. See also, Boshoff, "Some Thoughts Concerning Mandatory Continuing Legal Education in Indiana," ALI-ABA CLE Review 7 (May 1976): 2.

30. National Conference on Continuing Legal Education Issues Final Statement with Recommendations," ABA Journal (1976): 210.

31. See, however, Report of the Subcommittee on Professional Competence (Massachusetts Bar Association) "Mandatory Assessment for CLE--Not Mandatory CLE," ALI ABA CLE Review, 7 (March 5, 1976): 2 (recommending that each lawyer be assessed $30 for support of voluntary CLE programs.

32. See "Pressure Building on ABA to Decide on Lawyer Ads," Washington Post (February 15, 1976): 20; "Bar Association is Facing Lawyer Advertising Issue," New York Times (February 15, 1976).

33. See ALI-ABA Catalog for a compilation of the various state proposals and rules.

34. "New Standards Set for Certification and Recertification of Legal Specialists," California State Bar Journal (July/August 1975): 309.

35. Telephone conversation with James Kovacs, California Specialization Board, March 1, 1976.

36. NMS conversation with Sylvan Strickland, Florida State Bar Association, March 1, 1976.

37. See, e.g., "A Proposal for the Certification of Specialists in Missouri," Missouri Bar Journal, 31 (1975): 172, reprinted ALI-ABA CLE Review, 6 (September 19, 26, 1975), requiring "substantial involvement" in the specialty field.

38. Warren Burger, "Special Skills of Advocacy: Are Specialized Training and Certification of Advocates Essential to our System of Justice?" Fordham Law Review 42 (1973): 227.

39. Advisory Committee on Proposed Rules for Admission to Practice, "Qualifications for Practice Before the United States Courts in the Second Circuit," Federal Rules Decision, 67 (1975): 159, (commonly known as the Clare Committee). It is clear that the Clare Committee proposals would apply to all new entrants to the Federal bar, on the premise that resort to Federal court implies litigation; this is not true for the state courts, where many attorneys never litigate. Their law practice may include legal counseling, will drafting, and other legal problems that are intended to prevent litigation rather than precipitate it. It is not clear, therefore, how a trial-advocate specialists program could be set up so that it would not include all attorneys in state court, but only those litigating. The British distinction between barristers and solicitors has been referred to as a possible model. See Sudel, "Specialization: The English Precedent," American Bar Association Journal, 61 (1976): 649-51, for a discussion of the English legal specialization practices.

40. For example, the Clare Committee report states, "The Committee finds there is a lack of competency in trial advocacy in the federal courts. . . directly attributable to lack of legal training. . ." Ibid., p. 164. Note, however, that the correctness of the Committee's belief in the existence is subject to dispute. See Committee on Federal Courts, Association of the Bar of the City of New York, "Report on Proposed Rules of Admission to the Federal Courts, " (N.D.); Committee on Federal Courts, New York State Bar Association, "Report on Proposed Rules of Admission to Federal District Courts (N.D.).

41. See Kurland, "Polishing the Bar," New York Times (April 24, 1975), which points to incompetent judges as the real problem.

42. See Wolken, "A Better Way to Keep Lawyers Competent," American Bar Association Journal, 61 (1975): 574; "More on a Better Way to Keep Lawyers Competent," American Bar Association Journal, 61 (1975): 1064 (proposing selective monitoring of attorneys as one better mode of ensuring competence.) See also Judge A.S. Steuer, "Are the Critics of the Trial Bar Right?" ALI-ABA CLE Review, 5 (May 3 and May 10, 1974).

43. A second potential cost of the trial-advocate proposal comes from the assumption that law schools can adapt to the required course standards by adding new course offerings. This ignores the possibility that other courts might follow the example of the SEcond Circuit in issuing course requirements, but with different particulars. This has already occurred to some extent in the Indiana Supreme Court's Rule 13 requiring specified courses in law school of *all* applicants to the Indiana bar, whether or not they plan to try cases. Indiana Supreme Court Committee on Rules of Practice and Procedures, Proceedings on Rule 13 of the Rules of Admission to the Bar of Indiana by Written Examination (1975). As a result, the law

schools fear Balkanization of bar admission requirements and their curricula, and not without reason. If only a few state courts issue similar pronouncements, each requiring a slightly different course structure, the result could be that most law schools in the United States would be unable to meet the conflicting demands.

It must be remembered that perhaps a third of all law schools are national institutions, whose students may be interested in employment anywhere in the country. For this reason, the imposition of standards in New York would have its impact in California, and vice versa. Moreover, there are serious grounds for doubt that law schools have the financial resources to add sufficient courses in trial advocacy to meet the needs of those desiring to practice in the trial courts of the Second Circuit, much less all the courts.

44. See "Federal Judges Respect Admission Rule," American Bar Association Journal, 62 (February 1976): 211; Judge Jack Weinstein of the Eastern District of New York explains his opposition to the proposed rules in testimony before the Clare Committee, Weinstein, "Questionable Proposals to Make Admission to the Federal Bar More Difficult," ALI-ABA CLE Review 6 (December 5, 12, and 19, 1975). Judge Marvin Frankel has expressed similar disapproval of the recommended rules for admission in his court room during admission ceremonies for new laywers - "A Judge Defends Young Lawyers," New York Times (January 4, 1976), reprinted in full as Frankel, "Ill-Advised Rules for Bar Admission, " ALI-ABA CLE Review, 7 (February 13 and 20, 1976): see "Second Circuit Judicial Council Issues Statement on Proposed Admission Rules," American Bar Association Journal, 62 (April 1976): 516, reporting the Northern District of New York and the District of Vermont adopting the Clare Committee recommendations.

45. See, MacCrae, "Populist and Elitist Conceptions of the Bar," ALI-ABA CLE Review, 5 (March 8, 1974): 4. ("I suggest that we approach with the greatest caution any suggestion that we try to limit trial and appellate advocacy to an eligit segment of our bar.") See, also A.T. Mekoel, "A Judicial View of Trial Advocacy," Trial, 12 (1976): 45, who advocates that law schools screen their students for "talent and character." Judge Mekoel expects that such a screening would make it easier for intelligent law students who are poor test takers, to gain admission to the bar, and that character screening would upgrade professional competence. While desirable goals, neither seems achievable with available technologies.

46. 407 U.S. 25 (1972).

47. W. H. Pedric, and J.P. Frank, "We are Faced with a 'Clare and Present Danger'", Learning and the Law, 2 (1976): 46, who while presenting a similar analysis, discuss their conclusion on the context of law school, not counting legal education.

48. For the ALI-ABA survey, the data on CLE attendance statistics may be translated as being the equivalent of one-quarter of all lawyers in criminal law practice attending one CLE course. Those individuals who presently attend CLE would require a doubling fo CLE effort for them to meet the 15-hour mandatory requirements since the ALI-ABA data also show that the typical CLE program is for eight hours. Those not attending would require an additional six-fold increase, making the needed total additional course effort to be eight times the present.

49. The present maldistribution is the result of both misperceptions about CLE on the part of providers (and some recipients), who accept with questioning the trial focused model of the courts, and the greater ability of the most experienced practitioners to pay for CLE. As a result of the latter, those who need CLE the most, the new practitioners have it least available.

50. The relative deprivation of juvenile law CLE may, for example, be related to the fact that only recently has there been any requirement for counsel in juvenile court. In re Gault [387, U.S. 1 (1967)], defined a mandate that has not, however, been met. In addition to their nonavailability, counsel for juvenile defendants are often paid less than counsel in felony or even misdemeanor cases. Similarly, prosecution for juvenile cases often comes from a city corporation counsel's office where staff attorneys are paid less than counsel in the district attorney's or state attorney general's office. Thus, counsel in juvenile cases are less able to pay for CLE than those with other criminal law subspecialties. Many CLE organizations with a publications program include materials or monographs on juvenile law. This merely emphasizes, however, its omission from their program schedule.

51. See also the materials of the Northwestern University short courses for prosecution and defense; possibly because of the large scope of their programs the two LEAa-funded national colleges do not have the superior materials that the above-mentioned organizations have in support of their programs. The scope (in contrast to the depth of their content) of the national colleges' total programs, however, can be characterized as superior.

52. But as discussed earlier, there is at present no national effort to support local CLE providers. The only visible national efforts are those of the few national providers such as the ALI-ABA or the LEAA-funded national CLE programs (National College of District Attorneys, National College of Criminal Defense Lawyers and Public Defenders). Both of the colleges have undertaken Joint CLE programs, in contrast with state CLE groups. Only the still-embryonic ABA consortium or the sporadic efforts of the ALI-ABA Joint Committee have been in any responsive to the problems of the small CLE providers. Not that others have not tried, but only the ABA can offer both a "carrot and stick" to the small CLE providers to encourage them to abandon their hesitancy in accepting national assistance.

CHAPTER IX
(continued)

53. A. Amsterdam, B. Segal, and M. Miller, Trial Manual for Defense of Criminal Cases, ALI-ABA (revised) 1975. In addition, the state-lcoal providers might attempt to annotate the Trial Manual 3 for the Defense of Criminal Cases (revision 1975), with respect to local variations in law or procedure. This could, of course, be done by the Joint Committee if it had sufficient federal support to dos. It might be thought by some to be preferable for the Joint Committee to coordinate and review locally based annotation efforts where the cooperation of the state or local provider is availab.e The dual responsibility split would serve federalism concerns while pursuing quality controls and insuring the integrity of the Trial Manual.

54. See, C.C. Bengaman, "Some Wise Words about Continuing Legal Education," Learning and the Law 2 (1976): 22, from whom some of these recommendations have been takin.

55. President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, Task Force Report: Courts (1967).

CHAPTER X. PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN CORRECTIONS

A. INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews and analyzes the educational status of several professional occupations that support correctional treatment and probation and parole activities. Not all occupations are covered. Emphasis is given to the social worker, psychologist, sociologist/criminologist, and the rehabilitation counselor.

The NMS study found in its field interviews and expert panel discussions a range of opinions about the usefulness of some of these occupations in the treatment function. It appears that these varying views stem from perceptions of earlier treatment programs, which were essentially lacking in any proven typologies. Corrections, having little professional base of its own in the treatment area originally turned for help to a variety of professions. It was hoped that these professions working in consort could provide effective programs. Thus, from the beginning corrections could not develop a lifeline to any one discipline in the professional educational system which would exclusively accommodate its treatment needs which remain relatively undefined.

Carter, McGee, and Nelson put the dilemma for the correctional executive in this way:

> Given the universality of role conflict as an aspect of administrative experience, it nevertheless seems safe to say that correctional administrators are more subject to this phenomenon that most other managers in either the public or private sphere. This is true because of the many sharply differing

> beliefs concerning what should be done with offenders, and the lack of any dependable empirical information to use in subscribing to one over another. Correctional administrators are buffeted by conflict precisely because the constituencies to which they need to be related in order to accomplish their purposes are committed to highly conflicting ideologies and norms.[1]

This chapter examines various academic disciplines in terms of their value in preparing professional personnel for entering the correctional setting within the limitations outlined the above statement.

Progress has been made toward providing correctional concentrations within some degree programs. However, the NMS analysis indicates that this has been a limited development. Frequently, educational institutions, before making further commitments, need to examine the willingness of the correctional system to establish substantive positions to utilize the products of various professional programs. Moreover, students with other career choices available have often veered from corrections because of working conditions, lay pay, and concern about opportunities for applying one's professional training in a closed and authoritarian environment.

The following discussion provides an educational profile of certain degree programs preparing professionals for positions in correctional activities. Included is an analysis of program offerings, of placement opportunities, and of some of the problems involved in one or more of the disciplines' abilities to produce the needed skills for future correctional programs.

B. SOCIAL WORK

Preparation in social work has long been regarded as a preferred educational background for personnel in corrections. In recent years, however, the proliferation of other educational backgrounds in professional corrections positions has tended to mute the importance of social work.[2]

This section discusses the current role of social work as a continuing discipline for corrections and briefly appraises the potential role of social work education in the future.

The number of approved graduate degree programs in social work, as reported annually by the Council on Social Work Education, has increased slowly over the past four years. In 1972, there were 78 approved MSW programs in the United States. In 1973 and 1974, the number of approved programs rose to 79, and in 1975, to 80. At the doctoral level the number of approved programs increased from 25 in 1972, to 31 in 1975. Information regarding the bachelor of social work degree is available only for the years 1973 and 1974, during which time the number of approved programs was 215 and 214, respectively.[3]

Table X-1 presents a listing of all approved graduate-level programs in social work, indicating those schools that offer an area of concentration in corrections or criminal justice. Approximately one-third of the schools offer a specialization in this field of practice. Table X-1 also indicates the number of courses offered in each school that are related to the area of criminal justice. The total number of courses offered was 103, of which 66--or 64 percent--are contained in schools with the corrections/criminal justice concentration available. However, 23 of the courses are offered by a single school, the University of Alabama. Thus, excluding the University of Alabama, the proportion of courses offered in the remaining criminal justice programs is 54 percent of the total courses offered. The median number of courses offered in all schools is two, and the most frequently reported number of courses is one.

Table X-2 presents the relationship between the number of criminal justice courses available in schools offering or not offering a concentration

TABLE X-1

APPROVED SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK IN THE UNITED STATES, NUMBER OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE RELATED COURSES OFFERED, NUMBER OF FIELD PLACEMENTS IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE, SPECIALIZATION IN CORRECTIONS OFFERED: 1974

Institution	Specialization in Corrections/ Criminal Justice Offered[a]	Number of Criminal Justice Courses Offered[b]	Number of Criminal Justice Placements[c]
Adelphi University	No	0	6
University of Alabama	Yes	23	0
University of Arizona	No	0	5
University of Arkansas	No	N/A	2
University of Atlanta	Yes	3	3
Barry College	No	N/A	8
Boston College	No	1	4
Boston University	No	0	6
Bryn Mawr College	No	1	13
University of California, Berkeley	No	0	0
University of California, Los Angeles	No	N/A	2
California State University, Fresno	Yes	0	16
California State University, Sacramento	No	N/A	30
Case Western Reserve University	No	2	13
Catholic University	No	1	4
University of Chicago	No	4	12
Columbia University	No	4	11
University of Connecticut	Yes	3	16
University of Denver	No	N/A	5
Florida State University	No	0	2
Fordham University	No	1	22
University of Georgia	Yes	0	9
University of Hawaii	No	1	10
University of Houston	No	0	1
Howard University	Yes	N/A	41
Hunter College	No	0	38
University of Illinois, Circle	Yes	N/A	15
University of Illinois, Urbana	Yes	N/A	6
Indiana University	No	1	2
University of Iowa	No	0	0
University of Kansas	No	N/A	6
University of Kentucky	Yes	3	10
Louisiana State University	Yes	4	13
University of Louisville	No	N/A	12
Loyola University	Yes	1	9
University of Maryland	No	1	5
Marywood College	Yes	6	12
Michigan State University	No	0	4
University of Michigan	No	N/A	30
University of Minnesota, Minneapolis	No	0	15

TABLE X-1

(continued)

APPROVED SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK IN THE UNITED STATES, NUMBER OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE RELATED COURSES OFFERED, NUMBER OF FIELD PLACEMENTS IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE, SPECIALIZATION IN CORRECTIONS OFFERED: 1974

Institution	Specialization in Corrections/ Criminal Justice Offered[a]	Number of Criminal Justice Courses Offered[b]	Number of Criminal Justice Placements[c]
University of Missouri	Yes	N/A	0
University of Nebraska	Yes	N/A	2
State University of New York, Albany	No	N/A	8
State University of New York, Buffalo	No	1	0
State University of New York, Stoney Brook	No	N/A	6
New York University	No	0	11
University of North Carolina	No	N/A	4
Ohio State University	No	2	27
University of Oklahoma	No	N/A	14
Our Lady of the Lake College	No	0	4
University of Pennsylvania	Yes	9	40
University of Pittsburgh	Yes	4	13
Portland State University	No	0	2
Rutgers University	No	3	21
St. Louis University	Yes	3	22
San Diego State University	No	0	5
California State University, San Francisco	No	N/A	3
Simmons College	No	0	10
Smith College	No	N/A	0
University of Southern California	No	1	7
University of South Carolina	No	1	10
Syracuse University	Yes	N/A	14
Temple University	No	N/A	10
University of Tennessee	Yes	2	14
University of Texas, Arlington	No	1	2
University of Texas, Austin	No	N/A	0
Tulane University	No	2	8
University of Utah	No	2	16
University of Virginia	No	N/A	21
University of Washington	Yes	0	8
Washington University	No	2	15
Wayne State University	No	2	6
West Virginia University	Yes	1	8
Western Michigan University	Yes	1	9
George Williams College	Yes	N/A	1
University of Wisconsin, Madison	No	3	14
University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee	Yes	3	22
Yeshiva University	No	N/A	3

TABLE X-1

(continued)

APPROVED SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK IN THE UNITED STATES, NUMBER OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE RELATED COURSES OFFERED, NUMBER OF FIELD PLACEMENTS IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE, SPECIALIZATION IN CORRECTIONS OFFERED: 1974

Total Number of Schools = 78.

Number of Schools Offering Criminal Justice-Related Courses = 35/53 Reporting = 66%

Total Number of Courses Offered = 103

Total Number of Placements in Criminal Justice = 798.

Number of Schools Offering a Specialization in Corrections = 24/78 = 31%.

---

[a] Indication that the school offered a specialization in corrections is derived from the analysis of catalogues cited above and from the 1974 report of the Council on Social Work Education.

[b] Source: NMS, Analysis of Social Work School Catalogues, 1976.

[c] Source: Council on Social Work Education, Statistics on Social Work Education in the United States: 1974.

TABLE X-2

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE COURSES OFFERED AND THE PRESENCE OF AN AREA OF SPECIALIZATION IN CORRECTIONS IN SOCIAL WORK SCHOOLS, ACADEMIC YEAR 1974-75

Number of Courses Offered[a]	Specialization in Corrections Offered[b]					
	Yes		No		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
0	4	17	15	28	19	24
1	2	8	11	20	13	17
2	1	4	6	11	7	9
3	5	21	2	4	7	9
4	2	8	2	4	4	5
5 or more	3	13	0	0	3	4
N/A	7	29	18	33	25	32
	24	100%	54	100%	78	100%

[a] Source: NMS: Review of Social Work Program Catalogues, 1976.

[b] Source: See Note c in Table X-1.

in that area. The table indicates that the correlation between the presence or absence of a criminal justice program and the number of courses offered is relatively weak. However, caution should be exercised in interpreting this information. An NMS review of the program catalogues of many schools offering this concentration indicated that there is extensive reliance upon departments outside the school of social work to provide coverage of topics in the specific area of criminal justice.

The courses offered in social-work programs in criminal justice/corrections are presented in Table X-3. There is relatively little difference in the course offerings between social work schools which offer a concentration in corrections and those that do not. However, two exceptions are noted. First, programs with a corrections concentration tend to offer a larger proportion of courses in correctional policy and practice, while programs not offering this concentration tend to offer more courses in general criminal justice topics. The other exception is general criminal justice. A large proportion of general criminal justice courses are offered in schools without a concentration in corrections. The larger proportion of courses covering legal topics in schools not offering the corrections specialization also appears to be misleading. A closer examination of those courses indicates that a substantial proportion are of the "law and social work" variety, which cover such topics as family-law or the sociology of law, rather than specific criminal justice topics. Criminal justice legal topics are most frequently found in those schools with a corrections specialization.

The placement of social work students in corrections agencies is a second indication of the level of emphasis on corrections in social work preparation. All approved social work programs require that students serve a period of time in a social service agency as a part of their academic preparation. The length of the field placement period varies, but it is usually undertaken

TABLE X-3

COURSES IN SOCIAL WORK RELATED TO CRIMINAL JUSTICE/ CORRECTIONS, INDICATING A CONCENTRATION IN CORRECTIONS, ACADEMIC YEAR 1974-75

Topic	Concentration in Corrections Offered[a]					
	Yes		No		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Administration and Management	8	12.7	4	11.8	12	12.4
Legal Topics	11	17.5	7	20.6	18	18.6
Corrections Policy and Practice	16	25.3	4	11.8	20	20.6
Correctional Theory	7	11.1	3	8.8	10	10.3
Juvenile Justice	9	14.3	4	11.8	13	13.4
Research and Planning	2	3.1	3	8.8	5	5.2
General Criminal Justice	6	9.5	9	26.5	15	15.5
Special Topics	4	6.3	0	0.0	4	4.1
Total	63	100.0	34	100.0	97**	100.0

[a] Special topics included: Correctional Change Technology, Community Based Corrections, Women in Criminal Justice, and Victimization Studies.

Source: NMS Executive Surveys, 1975. Analysis of Social Work School Catalogues.

during the second year of study either on a part-time or full-time basis. The Council on Social Work Education further requires that this field placement be supervised by an accredited social worker: either an employee of the agency itself or a member of the school faculty.

The location of the field placement may be a critical component of the ultimate contribution of the social work program to a given area of social service. During field placement, the student is exposed to the realities of social work practice in a particular area and, based upon that experience, is likely to gain an impression of the desirability of entering that particular field. It is not required that a social work student enter a field placement that is related to the area of practice he or she may desire to enter upon graduation. Thus, the number of students placed in a given type of agency is not a predictor of the area of practice the students will adopt. However, it seems likely that exposure to a given area, at the least, increases the likelihood that a student will at least be aware of and consider that area of practice.

Table X-4 indicates that in 1974, the number of students entering a criminal justice agency as their field placement was 834. In that year, 16,590 total social work field placements were made in the United States (excluding Puerto Rico). Thus, the proportion of students assigned to a criminal justice agency was approximately 5 percent of all such placements. This proportion has remained relatively constant since 1971.

The average percent of students placed in criminal justice agencies controlled for the existence or absence of a program offering an area of specialization in corrections is 6.5 percent (Table X-5). The average percent of students placed in criminal justice agencies among schools not offering this concentration is 4.1 percent.

TABLE X-4

NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF GRADUATE SOCIAL WORK STUDENTS ENTERING CORRECTIONS/ CRIMINAL JUSTICE AGENCIES FOR FIELD PLACEMENT, ACADEMIC YEAR 1971-74

Year	Number Placed in Corrections/ Criminal Justice	Total Placements	Percentage Placed in Corrections/ Criminal Justice
1970-71	785	14,238	5.5%
1971-72	743	15,040	4.9
1972-73	841	16,099	5.2
1973-74	834	16,590	5.0

*These figures are based upon all schools reported including the University of Puerto Rico.

Source: Council on Social Work Education, Statistics on Social Work Education in the United States: 1971-74 (Annual reports).

TABLE X-5

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PROPORTION OF STUDENTS PLACED BY SOCIAL WORK SCHOOLS IN CORRECTIONS/CRIMINAL JUSTICE AGENCIES AND THE PRESENCE OF AN AREA OF SPECIALIZATION IN CORRECTIONS IN THE ACADEMIC PROGRAM, ACADEMIC YEAR 1973-74

Proportion of Students Placed in Criminal Justice Agencies	Specialization in Corrections Offered					
	Number			Percent		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Less than 1%	2	6	8	8	11	10
1.0 - 1.9	3	11	14	13	20	18
2.0 - 2.9	2	6	8	8	11	10
3.0 - 3.9	-	9	9	0	17	12
4.0 - 4.9	2	5	7	8	9	9
5.0 - 5.9	4	6	10	17	11	13
6.0 - 6.9	1	1	2	4	2	3
7.0 - 7.9	2	2	4	8	4	5
8.0 - 8.9	-	3	3	0	6	4
9.0 - 9.9	5	2	7	21	4	9
10.0% or More	3	3	6	13	6	8
Mean	-	-	-	6.5	4.1	-
Total	24	54	78	100	100	100

Source: Council on Social Work Education; Statistics on Social Work In the United States: 1974, pp. 34-37.

Variations in social work school programs, apart from those discussed above, are structured primarily by the accreditation rate exercised by the Council on Social Work Education. Some programs are designed to prepare persons to enter direct service roles while other programs prepared students for what are called "macro" level positions--that is, positions in research, policy planning, and administration. Direct-service preparation has traditionally dominated social work. However, in recent years the pattern in social work has apparently begun to shift away from direct service, and increasing emphasis is being placed upon the "macro" level roles.

A more precise distinction of the variations in social work programs is provided by the Council on Social Work Education. Each of the major variations is discussed briefly below.

- Generic multi-method practice is a generalized approach to the preparation of social work students in which a variety of materials, methods, and areas of specialization are covered without a specific area focus. In practice, this variation is rarely adopted as a career preparation. It is often used to classify first-year students who have not decided upon a particular area of concentration. However, a small number of schools do permit a student to receive a degree in this area.

- Micro, direct service, clinical, case-work and groupwork constitutes a preparation in the methods of individualized direct services. The focus of the preparation is on providing the student with the necessary skills to deal with individual clients in a professional casework relationship. The types of skills emphasized include the ability to study and assess individuals' needs, and the ability to prepare a suitable course of action. Specific skills include interviewing, the maintenance of a therapeutic relationship, utilization of social resources, and the selection of intervention actions.

- The group work approach differs from the casework method in two respects. First, the group is used as a therapeutic resource under the direction of the social worker. Second, the focus of the treatment is upon the group as a whole rather than upon any single individual. In other respects the skill and knowledge imparted are the same as those required in the casework method.

- Community organization, planning, and development is a preparation for work at the "macro" level of social work practice with a particular emphasis upon the coordination, development, and utilization of resources in the community. Preparation in this area is concerned with the dynamics and components of planning processes as they relate to social problems, issues, and opportunities for change. The areas of knowledge presented include the planning process; policy and program development; resource allocation; and the relationship of urban economics to planning, interorganizational coordination, communications, and decision-making. Specific skills taught include the techniques of planning, survey research, evaluation procedures, ficsal planning, negotiation, and advocacy. It is in this area and the succeeding area that social work might provide a greater potential for correctional concentration.

- Administration, management, social policy, mezzo or macro intervention is a preparation for work at the executive and administrative level of social service agencies. Areas of knowledge presented include the administrative process, organizational structure of social welfare agencies, staff development, staff allocation, supervision, and project evaluation, Personnel, budgeting, training, and administrative and supervisory techniques are the specific skills taught.

- Research is a preparation emphasizing competence in understanding and applying scientific research methods and in the utilization of research findings in social work practice. The skills and knowledge presented include problem formulation, data collection and analysis, presentation of findings, current research, quantitative analysis, research methods, evaluation research, and the development of theory.

The distribution of social-work students among the various areas of concentration is presented in Table X-6. Among the various areas of concentration, the largest and most rapidly growing is still that of direct service casework and groupwork. In 1973-74, the category of practice was adopted by nearly half of the graduate social-work students enrolled. The remaining areas, in order of highest enrollment, are generic-multi-method practice, with 25 percent of enrolled students; administration, management, and social policy, 13 percent; community organization, planning, and development, 6 percent of enrolled students; and research, comprising less than 1 percent of enrolled students.[4]

Table X-7 presents the distribution of second-year graduate school social-work students among the various areas of concentration in universities offering or not offering an area of specialization in corrections or criminal justice. The data concerning second-year students are used because of the large proportion of first-year students whose concentrations are not classified or are classified under the label of generic, multi-method practice. Table X-7 indicates that universities offering an area of specialization in corrections/criminal justice do not differ appreciably in terms of the distribution of students among the areas of concentration from universities not offering the correctional criminal justice specialization. Universities offering the corrections/criminal justice specialization do have a significantly smaller proportion of students enrolled in the direct-service area, but this is offset by a larger proportion enrolled in the generic, multi-method area and the "other" classification. As indicated above the greater potential for corrections would be for students to begin to concentrate more in community organizations and administrative-management areas.

TABLE X-6

NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF GRADUATE SOCIAL-WORK STUDENTS IN THE SEVERAL AREAS OF CONCENTRATION, ACADEMIC YEARS 1972-74

Area of Concentration	Academic Year					
	1971-1972		1972-1973		1973-1974	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Generic, Multi-Method	4,746	32	5,417	34	4,208	25
Casework, Groupwork, Direct Service	5,720	38	6,552	41	8,098	49
Community Organization, Planning, Development	922	6	911	6	947	6
Administration, Management, Policy	1,111	7	1,926	12	2,113	13
Research	57	*	38	*	51	*
Other[a]	2,494	17	1,242	8	1,168	7
Total	15,031	100	16,099	100	16,590	100

[a] Other includes those students indicating "no concentration, undecided or no response."

*Less than 0.5 percent.

Source: Council on Social Work Education, Statistics on Social Work Education in the United States, 1972-1974 (Annual reports).

TABLE X-7

DISTRIBUTION OF SECOND-YEAR GRADUATE SOCIAL WORK STUDENTS BY AREA OF CONCENTRATION, AND BY WHETHER OR NOT A CONCENTRATION IN CORRECTIONS IS OFFERED: 1974

Area of Concentration	Concentration in Corrections Offered					
	Yes		No		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Generic, Multi-Method	429	18.5	510	8.1	939	10.8
Direct Service	1,144	49.3	4,078	64.4	5,222	60.0
Community Organization	82	3.5	518	8.2	600	6.9
Administration	291	12.5	701	11.1	992	11.5
Research	10	0.4	32	0.5	42	0.5
Other	366	15.8	494	7.8	860	9.9
Total	2,322	100.0	6,333	100.0	8,655	100.0

Source: Council of Social Work Education, Statistics of Social Work Education in the United States: 1974, pp. 32-33.

The contribution of social work schools to corrections manpower can be estimated by considering the number of graduates currently working in the corrections system. The most recent information prior to the National Manpower Survey is provided by the 1968 Joint Commission study. Among persons in corrections holding a master's degree, approximately 39 percent of administrators, 48 percent of supervisors, and 28 percent of treatment specialists held a degree in social work. Among administrators and supervisors, this represented the largest single group of master's degrees and, in the case of treatment specialists, it was the second largest group, being exceeded only by psychologists, who accounted for 29 percent of the master's degrees.

Patterns in the current educational attainment of correctional personnel, however, indicate that the social work degree may no longer be the recognized prerequisite for correctional practice, although there has been a steady growth in the number of such degrees awarded since 1971, as indicated in Table X-8. Despite the general growth in the area of probation and parole, less than one percent of probation and parole agencies responding to the NMS survey (n=1973) indicated that the MSW degree was an entry-level educational requirement and only 1.6 percent of probation and parole executives responding (n=1980) indicated that the MSW degree was the preferred or most desirable educational attainment for entry-level probation and parole officers. Similarly, only 4.1 percent of executives (n=1974) indicated that the MSW degree should be required of persons being promoted to probation or parole supervisor.

Among probation add parole executives, however, the MSW degree is not uncommon. In 1975 approximately 7.5 percent of all probation and parole executives held the MSW degree, and among corrections executives with an educational attainment of a master's degree or more, the MSW degree was held by 25.2 percent. The contribution of social work to other areas of

TABLE X-8

NUMBER OF GRADUATE SOCIAL WORK DEGREES AWARDED, ACADEMIC YEARS, 1971-74

Degree Awarded	Year			
	1971	1972	1973	1974
Master's Degrees Awarded	6,559	6,909	7,387	8,005
Percentage change from previous year	-	+ 5%	+ 7%	+ 8%
Post-Master's Degrees Awarded	130	114	112	159
Percentage change from previous year	-	-12%	- 2%	+42%
Total Degrees Awarded	6,689	7,023	7,499	8,164
Percentage change from previous year	-	+ 5%	+ 7%	+ 9%

Note: In 1974, information was first available concerning BSW degrees awarded. These numbered 9,530 in 1974.

Source: Council on Social Work Education, Statistics on Social Work Education in the United States: 1971-74 (Annual reports).

corrections can only be estimated indirectly on the basis of responses to a 1974 survey of criminal justice personnel conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census. Table X-9 presents the distribution of personnel in several correctional occupations according to the highest degree held. This table refers only to those personnel with an associate level degree or more in each occupation. Presumably, a significant proportion of those indicating a "professional" level education are persons with the MSW degree. The table suggests that, among personnel in corrections with an associate degree or more, only a small proportion could be expected to hold a degree in social work, while those reporting a master's degree could be holders of an MSW.

In general, then, it appears that the contribution of social work to the professional preparation of correctional personnel is relatively small. However, the potential contribution of social-work schools to corrections manpower will depend in large part upon the availability of positions and other factors both within social work itself and within the corrections system.[5] In corrections the primary factor will most likely be the direction the system takes with respect to the various treatment approaches emerging from the current critical debate: the "restraint" model, the "rehabilitative" model, and the "reintegrative" model, etc. The restraint model, characterized by the return to a punishment/deterrance approach, would tend to reinforce the negative image of corrections, and would likely result in a major diminuation of social-work practice in the field. The "rehabilitative" model, which dominates corrections practice today, implies an important role for the social worker. However, past experience suggests that it is unlikely that sufficient numbers of casework specialists could be enticed into entering this practice unless working conditions and the generally unfavorable image of corrections are somehow revised.[6] Much future social

467

TABLE X-9

THE HIGHEST DEGREE HELD BY CORRECTIONAL PERSONNEL WITH A DEGREE IN HIGHER EDUCATION, 1974

(Percentage of Personnel with an Associate Degree or More)

	Total	Associates	Bachelors	Masters	Doctorate	*Professional	Other
Adult Corrections Officer	100.0	34.4	54.3	5.0	0.6	0.3	5.4
Adult Corrections Supervisor	100.0	35.2	50.5	11.2	0.0	0.0	3.1
Adult Corrections Treatment	100.0	8.4	57.4	28.0	1.1	1.6	3.4
Adult Corrections Executive	100.0	14.7	47.1	29.9	2.9	4.5	0.8
Juvenile Corrections Officer	100.0	12.7	69.1	11.1	0.0	0.6	6.5
Juvenile Corrections Supervisor	100.0	8.3	73.7	8.6	0.0	7.0	2.4
Juvenile Corrections Treatment	100.0	7.9	75.8	13.2	0.2	0.8	2.1
Juvenile Corrections Executive	100.0	2.9	58.9	34.7	0.2	1.5	1.7
Probation/Parole Officer	100.0	2.3	77.1	17.6	0.2	1.5	1.3
Probation/Parole Supervisor	100.0	0.2	72.1	21.6	0.7	5.4	0.0
Probation/Parole Executive	100.0	1.4	53.1	40.6	0.0	4.1	0.8

*Note: "Professional" includes master's of social work, LL.B., J.D., M.D., and other recognized professional degrees.

Source: U.S. Bureau of Census, Criminal Justice Employee Characteristics Survey, 1975.

work interest in this model will also depend upon the role treatment will play in future correctional facility administration. At present the social work field is concerned about administrative matters overtaking client casework, for example, the NMS field job analysis studies on probation and parole (Volume VIII) summarized the problem as follows:

> In part, increased paperwork and report writing requirements are a function (particularly in the case of youth probation and aftercare services) of the court decisions mandating detailed documentation of activities and actions of clients, but in a large measure, this problem may stem from increasing bureaucratization within field agencies and between field services and headquarters. The movement towards integration, as Skoler points out, of field and institutional services under superagencies may have as its cost increased paperwork and bureaucratic delays and obstacles.[7]

The reintegrative model also implies a role for the social worker, but of a different character than for the professional caseworker. Rather, the social worker acts as a system broker and a coordinator of community resources. The adoption of a reintegrative approach to corrections treatment places substantial responsibility upon social work schools. The majority of social work students are trained in the area of direct services and individual casework. If corrections were to move in the direction of a reintegrative model, the social work school would be required to increase the level of emphasis upon administrative skills, community organization, and social policy planning. With respect to these factors, the role of social work depends upon both the eventual choice of corrections in terms of its treatment methods, and upon the willingness of social work programs to adjust their areas of training emphasis. The NMS field interviews indicated that the possession of a bachelor's degree in social work may well be sufficient for many correctional treatment programs. The movement toward this degree would widen the pool of applicants particularly if such programs permitted a major in corrections in areas where the needs would be most prevalent in the future.

C. OTHER ACADEMIC PROGRAMS PROVIDING PROFESSIONAL MANPOWER FOR CORRECTIONS

The NMS study concentrated mainly on the professional area of social work. There are, however, other areas which, although not characterized by professional degrees, such as the MSW, do provide the kind of academic preparation which contributes to the preparation of professional personnel in corrections. The programs examined briefly in this chapter include psychology, sociology/criminology, and rehabilitative counseling. The NMS made only a very limited study of these areas in its surveys or field interviews. The following pages summarize some of the available information and data on these programs. They suggest that educational institutions engaged in such graduate programs emphasizing corrections may wish to re-evaluate their offerings in the light of changes in correctional needs and practices.

1. Psychology

In 1973, Speilberger, Mergargee, and Ingram conducted an informal survey among psychologists concerning the level of interest in the topics of crime, delinquency, and corrections. They concluded that, while a considerable level of interest existed, there was relatively little progress in this area for developing training programs.[8] This judgment was consistent with the findings of a 1971 study of college catalogues, by Brodsky and Heider, in which they found only 11 American universities offering 14 different courses directly related to crime and delinquency in department of psychology. Table X-10 lists the schools in which Brodsky and Heider found coursework related to crime and delinquency. The courses offered by these schools included forensic psychology and ethics, legal and criminal psychology, practicum of law enforcement, psychology of criminal behavior, correctional psychology, juvenile delinquency, delinquent children, psychology in law

TABLE X-10

AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES OFFERING COURSES IN CRIME AND DELINQUENCY IN DEPARTMENTS OF PSYCHOLOGY, 1971

Institutions	Number of Courses
Adelphi University	1
Michigan State University	1
Middle Tennessee State University	3
North Dakota State University	1
Ohio State University	1
Sacramento State College	1
St. Johns University	1
University of Colorado	1
University of Kentucky	1
University of Southern California	1
University of Tennessee	2
	14

Source: Stanley L. Brodsky, Psychologists in the Criminal Justice System (American Association of Correctional Psychologists, 1972), p. 120.

2

enforcement, and social psychology of delinquent behavior.[9] In addition to these programs, Speilberger _et. al._ identified four programs that provided interdisciplinary training in law enforcement and corrections in which psychologists participated as instructors. These programs were located at Florida State University, the University of Alabama, Southern Illinois University, and Middle Tennessee State University.

A final aspect of programs in psychology concerns those that provide internships in correctional or other criminal justice agencies as a part of the professional training of graduate students. Speilberger _et al._ found such programs at the University of Hawaii, the University of West Virginia, Eastern Michigan University, and the University of Montana. In addition, graduate students at Stanford University, the University of Buffalo, and the University of Texas were brought in to work with offenders in correctional agencies. Certain criminal justice agencies provide internships for graduate psychology students. These included the Monmouth (New Jersey) Child Guidance Clinic, the Federal Bureau of Prisons, and the Wisconsin Division of Corrections. Finally, the Johns Hopkins University offered a broad range of internships for graduate psychology students, including placement in various corrections and law enforcement agencies.[10]

The number of graduates in psychology entering correctional work each year is not known. However, indirect evidence suggests that the number is not large, nor is it a significant proportion of all graduate students completing degrees in psychology. According to the 1975 Report of the National Center for Education Statistics, 5,870 master's level degrees and 2,150 doctoral level degrees were awarded in psychology in 1975. To these must be added an additional 54,690 undergraduate degrees awarded in psychology-- a supply from which corrections frequently draws.[11] By contrast, in 1968 the

Greenleigh Report prepared for the Joint Commission of Correctional Manpower and Training indicated that there were an estimated 374 persons employed as psychologists in adult corrections institutions.[12] In 1971, the census of juvenile detention and correction agencies found that there were 280 psychologists employed in those institutions.[13] Even presuming that there has since been a substantial increase in the number of psychologists in the corrections system, it is apparent that only a very small proportion of psychology graduates enter correctional practice.

The potential for a contribution by psychology programs to the supply of corrections manpower, according to Speilberger _et al._, depends in large part upon the willingness and ability of such programs to expose graduate students to corrections-related materials and experiences. The authors conclude that graduate psychology students seldom enter corrections work despite openings, and that those few who enter are generally unprepared to deal with the particular problems of offenders. The reasons suggested for this are the lack of exposure to the correctional area and a lack of training in those aspects of psychology relevant to corrections. As a result, students who enter corrections practice tend to rely upon treatment techniques designed for middle class neurotics or serious psychotics, neither of which is appropriate for the bulk of the offender population.[14]

2. _Sociology/Criminology_

During the past century the academic discipline that has supplied the largest proportion of professionally trained personnel to corrections has been sociology. Criminology has been and is a major specialty within sociology: the study of causes of criminal behavior. In recent years a number of separate criminology departments have been established, but in most instances, criminology has remained an area of concentration within sociology.

The number of graduate programs in criminology/sociology has apparently remained quite stable for the last five years. Table X-11 shows the institutions listed in the 1975-76 IACP Directory of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice Education that offer graduate degrees in criminology, or sociology, or that have criminal justice-related programs located in departments of sociology or criminology. Thirteen of the 19 schools report an emphasis or substantial course offerings in corrections.

A second source of information regarding the number of programs in criminology/sociology is an analysis of the number of criminology programs receiving funds under the Law Enforcement Educational Program (LEEP). Table X-12 presents the results of that analysis, indicating the number of graduate criminology programs receiving such funding between 1972 and 1976. Moreover, the numbers agree in relative magnitude with the number of programs reported in the 1975 IACP Directory.

The number of students receiving graduate degrees in sociology/criminology is known for the two academic years 1971-72 and 1973-74 from a forthcoming report by Curtis Baker of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. There were 100 master's degrees and 12 doctoral degrees awarded in criminology in the academic year 1971-72. In academic year 1973-74, the number of master's degrees awarded in criminology increased 40 percent to 140, and the number of doctoral degrees increased 58 percent to 19.[15]

The contribution of criminology/sociology graduate programs to corrections manpower can only be estimated from the available data. In 1968, Karacki and Galvin reported upon a survey of 83 colleges and universities offering coursework in criminology and corrections in which they examined the employment patterns of graduates of those programs. Among 66 graduate students whose post-graduate employment could be traced, the authors in-

TABLE X-11

GRADUATE PROGRAMS IN CRIMINOLOGY/SOCIOLOGY RELATED TO CRIMINAL JUSTICE: ACADEMIC YEAR 1975-76

- California State College at Stanislaus*
- California State University at Fresno*
- Eastern Michigan University*
- Florida State University*
- Indiana State University*
- Indiana University of Pennsylvania*
- Lincoln College
- New Mexico Highlands University*
- Sam Houston State University*
- Southern Oregon College
- Temple University*
- University of Alabama at Birmingham
- University of California at Berkeley*
- University of Maryland
- University of Montana
- University of Pennsylvania
- University of South Dakota*
- University of Wisconsin at Madison*
- Western Kentucky University*

---

*Indicates special emphasis in corrections.

Source: International Association of Chiefs of Police, Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice Education (1975).

TABLE X-12

NUMBER OF GRADUATE CRIMINOLOGY PROGRAMS RECEIVING LAW ENFORCEMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM FUNDS ACADEMIC YEARS 1972-76

Year	Total	Master's Programs	Doctoral Programs
1971-72	18	13	5
1972-73	18	13	5
1973-74	18	13	5
1974-75	16	11	5
1975-76	14	12	2

Source: NMS: Analysis of LEEP Application Forms, 1968-1976.

dicated that 24 percent were employed in probation and parole agencies, 24 percent were employed as teachers outside the criminal justice system, 11 percent entered institutional treatment positions, 8 percent entered corrections in an administrative capacity, 8 percent entered a research position, 6 percent entered corrections as an institutional corrections officer, and the remaining 20 percent entered corrections in some unspecified capacity.[16] Because this analysis was based on students in both criminology and corrections programs, caution must be exercized in projecting the probable contribution of criminology programs alone. The authors suggest that relatively larger numbers of corrections program graduates actually entered criminal justice positions than graduates of traditional criminology/sociology programs.[17] Nevertheless, it does appear that the contribution of criminology/sociology programs to corrections staffing is significant, especially for professional treatment positions.

Variations in emphasis in criminology/sociology programs are difficult to assess, given the variations in structure typical of academic programs. In the 1968 survey cited above, Karacki and Galvin found that 37 directors of criminology programs indicated seven areas of practice for which their graduates were best prepared. The frequency distribution was as follows:

- 49 percent of directors indicated that their graduates were best prepared for the area of probation;
- 16 percent indicated best preparation for institutional-custody positions;
- 14 percent indicated correctional administration,
- 11 percent indicated institutional treatment;
- 8 percent indicated research,
- 8 percent indicated teaching, and
- 3 percent indicated parole.[18]

Even given this distribution in opinion, however, it would be difficult to assess programs in criminology/sociology in terms of their relevance to corrections-treatment practice. Such programs typically take a historical-theoretical approach to the problems and issues of crime. Unlike psychology, they are not normally designed to teach basic job skills.

A relevant question at this point is whether additional training provided to students in these programs would necessarily increase the level of relevance to treatment positions. Examining the programs listed in Table X-11, 12 of the 19 programs currently provide field placement in criminal justice agencies. These schools are: California State University at Fresno, Florida State University, Indiana State University, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Sam Houston State University, Southern Oregon College, the University of Alabama at Birmingham, the University of California at Berkeley, the University of Maryland, the University of Montana, the University of South Dakota, and the University of Wisconsin at Madison.

The final emphasis in criminology/sociology to be considered is the level of preparation given to graduate criminology/sociology students in the area of research. Of the 19 schools listed in Table X-11, 11 offer courses in research methods or the applications of research in directed-studies courses. The graduate curricula of an additional four schools are not specified, and the remaining four show no preparation in research whatsoever.

The schools offering research-related coursework are: California State University at Fresno, Indiana State University, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Sam Houston State University, Temple University, the University of Alabama at Birmingham, the University of California at Berkeley, the University of Maryland, the University of Montana, the University of Pennsylvania, and the University of Wisconsin at Madison.[19]

The number of professional treatment personnel with graduate degrees in sociology/criminology is not precisely known. Apparently the primary contribution of sociology/criminology is in providing bachelor's-level treatment personnel. According to the Joint Commission, 23 percent of corrections specialists hold a bachelor's degree in sociology, and an additional 3 percent hold degrees in criminology. This is the largest single category of academic preparation found in these positions. However, among treatment specialists holding a master's degree, a degree in sociology or corrections was held by 9 percent and 4 percent respectively--substantially lower than the proportion of master's degree holders in social work (28 percent), education (17 percent), and psychology (29 percent). The highest proportion of persons holding master's degrees in sociology/criminology is found in adult (as opposed to juvenile) agencies. Of these, the highest proportion is found in adult probation and parole agencies (20 percent) as compared with juvenile probation and parole (11 percent).[20] These figures are consistent with the findings of Karacki and Galvin with respect to the postgraduate employment of sociology/criminology graduate students, of whom the largest proportion enter probation work, and the judgment of program directors, who indicated in almost half the responses that probation is the area of practice for which their students are best prepared.[21]

The future of sociology/criminology programs to corrections manpower may depend upon several factors: their responsiveness to correctional needs as corrections redefines its treatment efforts, their ability to reflect these needs in appropriate graduate program offerings, and their ability to attract and place students in positions which fulfill these needs. The dilemma of the sociology/criminology contribution is endemic to the whole problem of what real support can the variety of professional academic disciplines offer in the future to the changing correctional treatment efforts.

Speilberger et al. suggest that in the development of interdisciplinary, crime-related programs in which faculty and subject matter are drawn from a variety of appropriate academic disciplines, such as psychology, criminology, and sociology, the boundaries between these disciplines have not been clear. Consequently, the dispute over the development of courses and programs in such areas as crime and delinquency has continued.[22] Foster suggests that the increase in the number of graduate criminal justice programs was motivated in part by the inability of the traditional academic disciplines to produce sufficient numbers of persons with the appropriate preparation to enter criminal justice practice, and the reluctance of these disciplines to move from a theoretical and academic orientation toward a practitioner-oriented program.[23] Given the fluidity of the current correctional treatment efforts and the problems of responding to needs, criminology and sociology may no longer be the dominant force in graduate preparation for corrections treatment. A newly defined and trained career correctional treatment occupation may emerge.

3. Rehabilitation Counselor

Volume III of this report considered the problem of delineating the role of counselors in corrections and concluded that national commissions and professional associations have not examined in any detail the multiple roles of counselors. The National Advisory Commission suggested that for the position of counselor supervisor, the educational requirement should be a bachelor's degree with training in social work, group work, and counseling psychology.

The Greenleigh Associates report adopted a more stringent definition of a professional counselor. The report indicated that there were at least eight separate categories of counselor recognized by the American Personnel and Guidance Association. Each of these areas was found to have varying qualifications for full professional status, but the most common requirement was a master's degree, or one or two years of graduate-level education. The report also noted that, in the counseling field in general, this standard was not met in the majority of cases.[24]

This chapter, since it focuses on professional personnel, will cover briefly one of the separate professional counseling categories--the rehabilitation counselor. One reason for brief identification of this field is to provide some suggestion for directing attention in corrections to counseling activities which can be more precisely identified.

Volume III of this report reached the conclusion that the term counselor has been used loosely in corrections to refer to professionals as well as to those individuals without formal educational preparation in counseling. Rehabilitation counseling which perhaps can be best identified with needs in a correctional setting has approximately 80 graduate and 60 undergraduate programs supporting its training efforts. The number of programs related to the correctional field was not determined by the NMS study. However, Appendix P of this volume contains a list of institutions supporting graduate trainee programs in rehabilitation counseling. This list is suggestive of the potential resources available for an increased correctional emphasis in this field, particularly during the period of a redefinition of treatment programs in adult and juvenile institutional and community-based activities.

Emphasis on this field of rehabilitation counseling originated with the 1954 Federal Vocational Rehabilitation Act, which highlighted the need for job training for persons with physical disabilities. Later, the concept expanded to incorporate other types of handicaps, such as mental illness, learning disabilities, and emotional stress affecting employment potential. As a result of their focus on therapeutic work with individuals, and groups, many of these programs were originally aligned administratively with psychology or social work departments.

Rehabilitation counseling programs now are designed to prepare individuals for employment in state and federal vocational rehabilitation activities, as well as public and private rehabilitation agencies. These programs provide treatment personnel for organizations, such as correctional institutions, which serve persons who are mentally, emotionally, socially, or physically handicapped. Programs of this nature are highly diversified in character, and often contain courses designed to develop a broad understanding of human behavior, as well as techniques of individual and group counseling, inter-professional relations, vocational appraisal and adjustment, and use of community resources in facilitating rehabilitation of handicapped persons.

Thus, graduates can and do enter corrections from this area of study, in addition to social work, with the main difference being this program's emphasis on the rehabilitation of individual clients with disabilities. Many group counselors are products of such study, and more can be expected to enter corrections now, since greater emphasis is being placed on those offenders who are handicapped in terms of employability and cultural and educational backgrounds.

Perhaps the greatest need for such personnel for the future will be in juvenile services for both those remaining in institutions and those in community-based correctional activities where the emphasis will be on more intensified efforts toward community reintegration. Such integration can best be achieved through educational and vocational readjustment and the overcoming of other handicaps to which community resources can respond. This would suggest overall that a tighter definition of what a professional counselor must do in a correctional setting is necessary and that the professional rehabilitation counseling service may be one place to begin such re-evaluation.

D. VOLUNTEERS AND PROFESSIONALS

In concluding this presentation on a selected group of professionals serving the correctional programs, it is important to recognize briefly the role of the volunteer in relation to professional services. For example, the American Bar Association's standards covering probation officers proposes in its standard 6.5, that:

> "(e) While the core of any probation department should be professionally educated and trained personnel, it is desirable that the staff includes individuals who may lack such professional qualifications, but have backgrounds similar to the probationers themselves. In addition, citizen volunteers should be used to assist probation officers."[24]

Volunteer work in the courts area has largely centered on juvenile probation. In the broader corrections field the use has been more wide-spread covering counseling of offenders in institutions and activities, service in work-release and jail programs, institutional and community based tutoring programs for illiterates and educational marginals as well as other activities.

In developing the relationship between the volunteer and the professional the Florida Probation and Parole Commission publication, The Volunteer Handbook, puts the relationship in these terms:

> Parole and Probation officers are often regarded by individuals under supervision in such a way as to hamper rapport, development of friendship and guidance in certain areas. The volunteer--is in a position to offer more recognizable friendship, accompanied by interest, concern, and warmth necessary to feel gaps which might exist between offender and the professional.[25]

Florida further reports that its citizen volunteers are recruited from all walks of life including: businessmen, policemen, laborers, teachers, housewives, ministers, attorneys, truck drivers, psychologists and retirees.

With respect to the relationship of professionals to such volunteers one recent study on court services rendered by volunteers concluded that many volunteers are capable of providing some of the same services as professionals. This means that many volunteers, with appropriate training and supervision can serve as a "substitute for the professional and should no longer be viewed in the context of simply augmenting or complementing the work of the agency staff."[26]

The key to such success is understood to be in careful screening of the entry level of skills and attitudes and in good training programs. The skills and attitudes necessary must be matched with the type of professional work and client with which the volunteer will work. Thus, a volunteer serving, for example, as a recreation leader may need to know more about how to work with groups and less about counseling than the volunteer working with a professional rehabilitation counselor. All need to know, however, about the organization of which they are a part.[27]

How well do volunteer programs perform? A most recent evaluation of 250 research reports on the effectiveness of volunteer programs (most were in probation--especially the juvenile area) indicated the following:

- More research is needed on the cost effectiveness of alternative recruitment programs for volunteers.
- There is a need for more objective, reliable, and valid screening procedures.
- There is an absence of a systematic model which spells out the specific format in which methods are to be combined into a training package.
- There is little empirical evidence of the effectiveness of alternative training procedures.
- There was no evidence in courts and corrections which demonstrated the necessary linkage between program effectiveness to bolster an argument that the program would not be as effective without the training component. More testing of alternative training procedures is needed since the body of evaluative research here is too thin.[28]

The study concluded:

> "In general terms, we would advocate the adoption of an experimental attitude toward volunteer programs. That is each volunteer program be conceived of as an experiment to develop effective rehabilitative treatment. . . It is not enough simply to assume that volunteer programs are "good" simply because people donate their time and/or energies. The need is to identify volunteer programs that are demonstratively effective based on hard evaluative evidence." [29]

The NMS did not undertake a separate study and evaluation of volunteer programs. Consequently, the above discussion is meant to direct attention to the problem of future volunteer utilization in relationship to future professional manpower needs. By reference to a limited number of studies it calls attention to the potentialities and the limitations particularly with respect to training programs.

A recent LEAA study estimates that in approximately 2,000 court systems in the United States some 200,000 volunteers are engaged in supportive activities alone.[30] Thus the program is undoubtedly here to stay. Rapid turnover, problems of supervision, and appropriate utilization of talents create changes in the maintenance of a viable work force. However, with the rapid growth in the needs of probation and parole officers, for example, it would appear that volunteer programs in this area could be intensified. Given the rather amorphous counseling situation throughout corrections as emphasized in Volume III of this report, it would further appear that a proper selection of professional counseling categories which have discreet professional education backgrounds, such as the rehabilitation counselor, be accomplished as corrections modifies its treatment programs. Volunteer programs, with their appropriate training and education components, could then be associated with these professional counseling categories in order to provide more discreet services.

In reality, if corrections continues to have difficulty in recruiting professionals for the reasons stated in the discussion on social work above, the role of the better screened and recruited volunteer, properly trained, may become more important in the correctional process.

The discussion with respect to volunteers applies with equal effect to the paraprofessionals whose assistance to professionals can be equally, if not more direct. This would suggest a more aggressive move to develop educational programs for paraprofessionals at the associate degree level for the acquisition of those skills which would complement the needs of those professionals in the correctional activities.

E. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Approximately 5 percent of all social work student placements in 1974 were in criminal justice. Such placements were higher among those schools offering an area of specialization in corrections.

The curriculum patterns in social work have begun to shift away from direct services--client-oriented approaches to those involving preparation in community organization, planning, and development. Such changes (although the bulk of student interest is still in direct client services in terms of course pursuits) could fit more closely the future correctional needs as programs shift to more community involvement.

Patterns in current educational attainment of correctional personnel tend to indicate that the graduate social work degree may no longer be the generally recognized prerequisite for certain positions in correctional practice. Social work degree holders may be continuing to avoid the field or shifting to other activities where the salary, employment setting, and the ability to exercise professional judgment in a more rewarding environment, are more favorable.

Correctional institutions also may not be making any concentrated efforts toward seeking socialwork graduates as indicated by the NMS interviews with officials of schools of social work.

The future direction of offender management may further influence the degree to which the social work profession contributes to correction activities. If more emphasis is place upon the reintegrative model or some variation, then those with social work training may look more favorably upon positions in such areas as community resource planning and utilization, offender management in the community setting, and social policy planning. However, if institutions begin to house more career criminals for long periods with limited treatment programs, social work graduates will continue to avoid such institutions.

The future utilization of the psychology profession involves some of the same correctional issues and directions affecting social workers. The former group will need to be trained more precisely in the skills necessary to operate in these new or revised correctional settings.

Criminology and sociology may likewise no longer dominate the area of graduate preparation for corrections in the future, except for their contribution in terms of conducting research and providing research-oriented personnel.

The professional counseling programs in corrections remain rather amorphous as Volume III indicated. Since there is a need to delineate professional counseling roles, tasks and responsibilities, one approach might be to focus on the professional rehabilitation counselor. This occupation since it is closely associated with the reintegrative process of the offender to the community, could serve as the base point for a much-needed reexamination of counseling functions within the correctional setting.

Given the correctional manpower, training and educational issues discussed in Volume III of this report--involving such matters as the future of imprisonment and treatment; and changes in juvenile service systems--the future preparation for the disciplines discussed in this chapter may call for some changes in course content. New patterns in educational preparation may be required due to the deinstitutionalization of juvenile correctional services, the increase in parole and probation intensity for adult offenders, and the accelerated job and community involvement programs for juveniles. At the same time, the demand for other skills will be increased for work in maximum security prisons where long-term and dangerous inmates are faced with more lengthy periods of incarceration and modified treatment and education programs.

If the current disciplines do not prepare persons for new or modified functions, the corrections system may need to look elsewhere for help. This might suggest the training of a professional correctional generalist and a probation/parole generalist--both new occupations obtaining their composite of skills from a variety of disciplines, but only in the amounts needed to perform precisely the defined tasks for the specific correctional settings. Such occupational creations may further suggest challenges to criminal justice educators and correctional agencies to explore the possibilities of such new position identifications in the evolving programs and corresponding educational efforts to train for these new positions.

During the extended interim period until major issues about correctional system treatment are resolved, it can be expected that professionals will continue to be trained according to present theories and practices. The executive's position remains critical in this situation in terms of coordinating and integrating the various individual practices into a cohesive policy. Often differences in professional approaches have affected the quality of treatment programs. For this reason, the role of the executive becomes more important in improving treatment activities through professional staff selection, career development, and an interdisciplinary utilization of talents.

NMS field interviews and panel discussions often raised questions about adversary relationships between professionals themselves, between professionals and managers, and between professionals and other staff. The work environment inevitably produces conflicts, and there is a two-fold challenge to the educational community: one in the training of administrators in the management of professionals; and secondly, in the training of professionals to work effectively in interdisciplinary environments. Given better correctional program definitions, the educational challenge posed by these two goals might bear increased attention in order to close this gap in executive limitations in program management and professional cooperation and effort.

Finally, while the study showed progress made in increasing the correctional options in institutions awarding professional degrees, the range of options and number of institutions remain limited. One discussion with educators indicated that the two-way street problem remains. The professional student and educator remain skeptical about the availability of substantive and challenging positions in corrections or, in some cases, indicate their reluctance in a correctional setting to move too far from the generic and general theories and priorities of the discipline. The executive, on the other hand, often questions the contribution which the discipline can make, particularly when the weight against the efficacy of the current treatment programs in which professionals are involved grows heavier. This would suggest that any future decisions about new directions in treatment programs might well include simultaneous consideration of the program capability of the educational community to reflect new needs and to provide--and the manager to accept--newly trained professionals who could move promptly into the new offender management systems. Any lag in the availability of trained personnel and the designated start-up time of new thoroughly revised programs could lead to reoccurrence of failures inherent in previous treatment efforts.

Finally, the proper recruitment, selection, and training of volunteers (and paraprofessionals) is essential to the functioning of professionals in the correctional setting. Given the limited number of professionals available and the changing patterns of correctional treatment, the volunteer can play more precisely defined roles, if properly trained, to augment the personnel assigned to treatment functions. While volunteers serve many functions in the correctional process, their responsibilities with respect to professionals appear to be the most important in their contribution to the treatment, probation, and parole activities.

Several approaches are recommended:

(1) LEAA should organize a professional education readiness committee which will work closely with correctional treatment program developers and with experimental programs now in progress (e.g., Butner) and with probation and parole groups. The purpose of this committee would be to develop occupational requirements and corresponding educational programs to fulfill these needs for professional personnel in the light of the anticipated changes. This process would bring together leaders of the professions currently supporting correctional programs, the executive practitioners, and criminal justice educators.

(2) The study committee effort should also include consideration of the training and utilization of volunteers and the education of paraprofessionals in new or modified correctional programs, in order that roles and tasks auxiliary or complementary to professionals can be developed at the same time. There appear to be two training and education objectives: the entry train-

ing and in-service training programs for volunteers and the technical education programs for paraprofessionals perhaps at the associate degree level.

(3) LEAA should fund a study to determine the feasibility of developing the professional correctional generalist and the professional probation/parole generalist whose training would draw from the contributions of many disciplines but whose repertoire of professional talents would be developed exclusively for the unique needs of the correctional system.

It is further recommended that in all consideration for revised education and training programs for the above professional or volunteer efforts that priority be given to the training in those professional or volunteer services which will be concerned with juveniles. Such efforts will be in keeping with the intent of the recent juvenile services legislation.

CHAPTER X

NOTES AND REFERENCES

1. Robert M. Carter, Richard A. McGee, and E. Kim Nelson, Corrections in America (1975), p. 275.

2. For example, Standard 6.5 of the American Bar Association Project on Standards for Criminal Justice for probation officers gave equal weight to a year of graduate study in social work, corrections, counseling, law, criminology, psychology, or sociology. See American Bar Association Standards Relating to the Administration of Justice (1974), p. 404.

3. This stability in numbers, however, may be misleading. The Council on Social Work Education periodically reviews the quality of programs in social work schools and may withdraw accreditation based on that evaluation. Thus, although the number of accredited schools may remain relatively constant, the schools that make up that number may not be the same from year to year. For example, considering the approved BSW programs between 1973 and 1974, although the number of approved schools decreased by only one, in actuality, this was the result of 10 schools having lost their approval rating and the new accreditation of nine other social work programs.

4. The field job analysis interviews reported in Volume VIII of this report for probation and parole officers indicated that some of the trends in social work preparation mirror the trends in probation and parole officer occupational demands. However, the enrollment of students is generally not in the same areas where needs are greater. The projections in the next five years include:

    -- more professional time will be devoted to individualized treatment and casework activities;

    -- increased attention will be devoted to individualized treatment planning;

    -- probation/parole officers will have an increased public relations function;

    -- more attention will be devoted to coordinating and developing the use of volunteers, community resources for treastment services; and

    -- increased time will be spent in courts.

5. Part of this problem can be inferred from the critical lack of positions in public detention and correctional facilities for juveniles. Children in Custody reported in 1971 that 722 facilities had a limited 1,471 social worker positions among the 44,626 full-time and part-time staff positions. This situation could be exascerbated with deinstitutionalization and the dispersion of limited staff in this critical area where the Congress has directed greater emphasis upon qualified personnel to service those youth in trouble. National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service, Children in Custody (Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1974).

CHAPTER X
(continued)

6. Joseph J. Senna, "The Need for Professional Education in Probation and Parole." *Crime and Delinquency* 22 (January 1976): 70, has pointed out that the professional social worker has indicated reluctance to work as a probation or parole officer because of low salaries, high caseloads, and "the authoritarian flavor of the correctional setting."

7. Daniel J. Skoler, "Correctional Unification: Rhetoric, Reality, and Potential." *Federal Probation* 40 (1976): 14-20.

8. Charles D. Speilberger, Edwin I. Megargee, and Gilbert L. Ingram, "Graduate Education," in *Psychologists in the Criminal Justice System*, edited by Stanley L. Brodsky (American Association of Correctional Psychologists, 1973), pp. 119 and 120.

9. *Ibid*., p. 120.

10. *Ibid*., pp. 120-124.

11. National Center for Educational Statistics, *The Condition of Education: 1975* (1975), pp. 178 and 179.

12. Greenleigh Associates, Inc., *Professional Manpower in Corrections: A Report to the Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training* (1968), pp. 53 and 54.

13. U.S. Department of Justice, LEAA, *Children in Custody: Advance Report on the Juvenile Detention and Correctional Facility Census of 1972-73* (1975), p. 64.

14. Speilberger, *et al.*, p. 128.

15. Interview with Curtis Baker, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, March 1976.

16. Loren Karacki and John Galvin, "Higher Educational Programs in Criminology and Corrections: Report of a Survey," in *Criminology and Corrections Programs: A Study of the Issues* (Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1972), pp. 17 and 18.

17. *Ibid*., p. 12.

18. *Ibid*., p. 14.

19. Richard W. Kobetz, *Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice Education Directory 1975-76* (International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1975).

20. Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, *A Climate for Change* (1969), p. 29.

CHAPTER X
(continued)

21. *Ibid*., pp. 45 and 46.

22. Speilberger, *et al*., p. 124.

23. James Price Foster, *A Descriptive Analysis of Crime Related Programs in Higher Education* (Ph.D. Dissertation, Florida State University, 1974), pp. 129-137.

24. American Bar Association, *Standards Relating to the Administration of Justice* (1974), p. 404.

25. Florida Probation and Parole Commission, *The Volunteer Handbook* (1974), p. 8.

26. Ira M. Schwartz, "Volunteers and Professionals: A Team in the Correctional Process." *Federal Probation* (September 1971): 49.

27. A detailed discussion on volunteer training is contained in James D. Jorgensen and Ivan H. Scheier, *Volunteer Training in Courts and Corrections* (1973).

28. Thomas J. Cook and Fred P. Scioli, *The Effectiveness of Volunteer Programs in Courts and Corrections: An Evaluation of Policy Related Research* (National Science Foundation-RANN, 1975).

29. *Ibid*., pp. 115 and 116.

30. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, *Volunteers in Law Enforcement Programs* (1972), p. 17.

APPENDIX A

EDUCATION AND TRAINING CONSULTANTS

Dennis W. Catlin
Education and Training Coordinator
Supreme Court
Lansing, Michigan

Alvin W. Cohn
President, Administration of Justice Services, Inc.
Rockville, Maryland

George T. Felkenes
Chairman, Department of Justice
University of Alabama
Birmingham, Alabama

William Mathias
Dean, Graduate Program of Criminal Justice
University of South Carolina
Columbia, South Carolina

Gordon Misner
Director, Department of Administration of Justice
University of Missouri
St. Louis, Missouri

M. Robert Montilla
Potomac Justice Foundation
Bethesda, Maryland

J.P. Morgan
President, Public Safety Research Institute, Inc.
St. Petersburg, Florida

Richard Myren
Director, Center for Administration of Justice,
 School of Public Affairs
The American University
Washington, D.C.

Vincent O'Leary
Dean, School of Criminal Justice
State University of New York at Albany
Albany, New York

Loren Ranton
Director, Training Center, National Council on
 Crime and Delinquency
Hackensack, New Jersey

Appendix A (continued)

David Saari
Center for Administration of Justice
The American University
Washington, D.C.

E. Preston Sharp
Professor, Department of Administration of Justict
and Public Safety, School of Community Services
Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia

James D. Stinchcomb
Chairman, Department of Administration of
Justice and Public Safety
School of Community Services
Richmond, Virginia

Victor Strecher
Professor, Department of Criminal Justice
Michigan State University
East Lansing, Michigan

MANAGEMENT TRAINING PANEL

Morris W. H. Collins, Jr.
Dean, School of Public Affairs
The American University
Washington, D.C.

John V. Cozzi
Manager, Staff Training Administration
First National City Bank
Long Island, New York

Lester A. Digman
Army Management Engineering Training Institute
Rock Island, Illinois

Donald Favreau
Professor and Director, Center for Executive Development and Public Safety
State University of New York at Albany
Albany, New York

Robert F. Friend
Traffic Institute
Northwestern University (Illinois)

Phillip Marks
Executive Assistant to the Police Commissioner
Boston, Massachusetts

William Wilke
National Institute for Corrections
Washington, D.C.

LAW ENFORCEMENT ACADEMY TRAINING PANEL

Leo A. Culloo
Executive Secretary
Police Training Commission
Newark, New Jersey

Preston Horstman
Executive Director
National Association of State Directors of Law Enforcement Training
Gaithersburg, Maryland

Phillip Marks
Executive Assistant to the Police Commissioner
Boston, Massachusetts

Howard Rasmussen
Director, Criminal Justice Institute
Miami-Dade Community College
Miami, Florida

CORRECTIONS ACADEMY TRAINING PANEL

George Fosque
Director, Staff Development
Massachusetts Training Academy
Framingham, Massachusetts

Jess Maghan
Director, Illinois State Correctional Training Academy
St. Xavier College
Chicago, Illinois

Thomas Rosazza
Assistant Executive Director
Maryland Correctional Training Commission
Jessup, Maryland

LEGAL EDUCATION PANEL

Lynn Edwards
Staff Director, Section of Criminal Justice
American Bar Association
Washington, D.C.

George T. Felkenes
Chairman, Department of Criminal Justice
University of Alabama
Birmingham, Alabama

Joel Henning
Staff Director, Division of Professional Education
American Bar Association
Chicago, Illinois

Peter Jaszi
Research Director, Standards and Goals on Terrorism and Civil Disorder
American University Law Institute
Washington, D.C.

Arthur Konopka
Division of Advanced Productivity Research and Technology
National Science Foundation
Washington, D.C.

Donald Maclay
Assistant Director, Joint Committee of American Law Institute
and the American Bar Association
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Cheryl V. Martorana
Office of Regional Operations
LEAA
Washington, D.C.

Norval Morris
Dean, College of Law
University of Chicago
Chicago, Illinois

Robert D. Peckham
Legal Aid and Defender Society
Athens, Georgia

Geoffrey Peters
Associate Professor of Law
Creighton University
Omaha, Nebraska

Legal Education Panel (continued)

William Pincus
President, Council on Law Enforcement
New York, New York

Millard Rudd
Executive Director, Association of American Law Schools
Washington, D.C.

Murry Schwartz
Dean, University of Pennsylvania Law School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Michael Starr
Association of Trial Lawyers of America
Cambridge, Massachusetts

James C. Swain
Head, Adjudication Division
LEAA
Washington, D.C.

COMMUNITY COLLEGE - CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATORS PANEL

Vern L. Folley
Director, Police Training Institute
Champaign, Illinois

Lander Hamilton
Chairman, Police Science Department
Northern Virginia Community College
Annandale, Virginia

Lee O. Henley
Associate Director, Florida Institute of Law Enforcement
St. Petersburg Junior Community College
St. Petersburg, Florida

Preston Horstman
Executive Director, National Association
of State Directors of Law Enforcement Training
Gaithersburg, Maryland

Alex Pantaleoni
Coordinator, Criminal Justice/Law Enforcement Department
Rio Hondo College
Whittier, California

James D. Stinchcomb
Chairman, Department of Administration of Justice
and Public Safety
Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia

Alvin Zumbrun
Chairman, Criminal Justice Department
University of Baltimore
Baltimore, Maryland

EDUCATION PANEL

George Felkenes
Chairman, Department of Justice
University of Alabama
Birmingham, Alabama

William Mathias
Dean, Graduate Department of Criminal Justice
University of South Carolina
Columbia, South Carolina

Gordon Misner
Director, Department of Administration of Justice
University of Missouri
St. Louis, Missouri

Donald Riddle
Chancellor, University of Illinois
Chicago, Illinois

James Stinchcomb
Chairman, Department of Administration of Justice and Public Safety
Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia

Paul Whisenand
Chairman, Department of Criminology
California State College
Long Beach, California

APPENDIX B

TYPICAL ASSOCIATE OF SCIENCE DEGREE IN LAW ENFORCEMENT

First Year

General Education Courses:

- English/Technical Report-writing
- Psychology
- Sociology/Criminology
- Government

Technical, Specialized Courses:

- Introduction to Law Enforcement/Criminal Justice
- Police Organization/Administration/Operations/Procedures
- Juvenile Delinquency Prevention/Procedures/Control
- Criminal Law

Second Year

General Education Courses:

- Math
- Humanities/Social Sciences

Technical, Specialized Courses:

- Police Supervision
- Criminal Investigation
- Law of Evidence (Procedure)
- Police Community Relations/Human Relations
- Introduction to Criminalistics
- Internship/Practicum/Field Methods/Seminar

Most typical additional specialized courses include:

- Traffic Administration/Control/Regulation
- Administration of Justice (Emphasis on Courts and Legal Process)
- Narcotics/Drug Abuse/Investigation
- Minority/Race/Ethnic Relations

Source: NMS Catalog Review of Associate Courses 1975-1976.

APPENDIX C

TYPICAL ASSOCIATE OF SCIENCE DEGREE IN CORRECTIONS

First Year

General Education Courses:

- English/Technical Report-writing
- Psychology
- Sociology/Penology
- Government

Technical, Specialized Courses:

- Introduction to Corrections
- Correctional Institutions
- Juvenile Delinquency/Procedures
- Criminal Law/Judicial Process

Second Year

General Education Courses:

- Math
- Humanities/Social Science
- Abnormal Psychology/Collective or Deviant Behavior

Technical, Specialized Courses:

- Correctional Administration
- Interviewing/Counseling
- Community-based Corrections/Treatment/Rehabilitation
- Probation and Parole
- Internship/Practicum/Field Methods/Seminar
- Jail Operations/Management

Most typical additional specialized courses include:

- Administration of Justice (Emphasis on Courts and Legal Process)

Source: NMS Catalog Review of Associate Courses 1975-1976.

APPENDIX D

THE NMS FIELD INTERVIEWS OF SELECTED COLLEGES
(Methodology)

A. SELECTION OF UNITS

The selection of methodology used by the National Planning Association for the study of criminal justice academic programs was pragmatically oriented for several reasons. Although a random sampling technique would have enabled the projection of survey results to the broader population of criminal justice programs, NPA had access to information on that total population through its analysis of data provided on LEEP application forms. Therefore, the emphasis of this survey was placed on obtaining more qualitative information, particularly the judgments of educational administrators concerning major problems and expected trends. With this in mind, a conscious effort was made to include primarily those institutions identified as relatively innovative and with a history of involvement in criminal justice higher education. In this way, it was intended to maximize the value of the survey results, inasmuch as other operating constraints (e.g., time, distance, funds) limited the total number of institutions that could be visited. It was felt that programs with previous experience in criminal justice higher education could logically be expected to have developed a perspective that would better qualify them to identify the prevailing academic issues in this field.

In addition, NPA staff decided that the survey instrument should be as inclusive as possible, and the utilization of such a lengthy instrument necessitated on-site administration rather than a mail survey. The participation of institutions which would be both receptive to the interviewer and located in relatively accessible areas was a further consideration. The on-site administration of this survey was advocated as a means of insuring greater accuracy and reliability of responses. Thus, it must be acknowledged that the value of a large sample size was sacrificed to obtain the personal insights of a small group of selected respondents on a case study basis.

In view of the differing philosophy, clientele, and mission of 2- and 4-year institutions of higher education, an effort was made to obtain a balance between the numbers of community colleges and universities included.

The following institutions were finally selected for participation in the survey of criminal justice higher education programs:

- Community Colleges:
  - Community College of Baltimore, Baltimore, Maryland
  - Catonsville Community College, Baltimore, Maryland
  - City College of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois
  - El Camino College, Torrance, California
  - El Centro College, Dallas, Texas
  - Forest Park Community College, St. Louis, Missouri
  - Harrisburg Area Community College, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania
  - Jefferson State Junior College, Brimingham, Alabama
  - Ocean County College, Toms River, New Jersey
  - Penn Valley Community College, Kansas City, Missouri
  - Tarrant County Community College, Forth Worth, Texas
  - Triton College, River Grove, Illinois
  - William Rainey Harper College, Palatine, Illinois
- Universities
  - University of Alabama, Brimingham, Alabama
  - University of Baltimore, Baltimore, Maryland
  - University of Illinois at Chicago Circle, Chicago, Illinois
  - California State University at Long Beach, Long Beach, California

- Minot State College, Minot, North Dakota
- University of Missouri at St. Louis, St. Louis, Missouri
- University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
- Rockhurst College, Kansas City, Missouri
- Rutgers University, Newark, New Jersey
- Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
- Towson State College, Towson, Maryland
- West Virginia State College, Institute, West Virginia
- University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

B. QUESTIONNARIE DESIGN AND ADMINISTRATION

The survey instrument was prepared through a series of drafts and pretests conducted by NPA staff and consultants. It was designed with the awareness that the National Manpower Study would simultaneously be coding and analyzing the information provided on LEEP application forms by the total universe of criminal justice higher educational programs. Thus, the data obtained from this survey represent only one component of a comprehensive data-gathering process, and this survey was envisioned as more valuable for its solicitation of insights from criminal justice program administrators than for the numbers to be obtained. A complete copy of the 79-item survey instrument is part of this appendix.

During the summer and fall of 1975, consultants and staff of NPA conducted approximately 20 on-site interviews, with the reaminder of the surveys administered by mail due to time and distance constraints. (It should be noted, however, that the mailed surveys were completed by program administrators well familiar with the National Manpower Study and briefed via telephone regarding the significance of this aspect of the NMS.) Since survey participatns had been carefully selected with receptivity as one criterion, no difficulties were encountered in obtaining interview time with the target respondents (criminal justice program administrators).

C. DATA ANALYSIS

Prior to reviewing the findings of this survey, it is important to note certain limitations with regard to data interpretation. As a result of the pragmatic selection described previously, the results are descriptive rather than inferential in nature, and care must be taken to avoid projecting the findings to the broader population of criminal justice programs. The programs described and judgments presented herein are those of a select groups of institutions of higher education, distinguished by previous experience and/or national reputation in this field. They are, therefore, somewhat unusual, and, while their participation in this survey has yielded valuable insights, one cannot infer that the findings presented herein are typical of criminal justice academic programs in general.

In view of the relatively small number of units (26) and the fact that the instrument was not designed with computer tabulation in mind, survey data were hand-tabulated. The number was insufficient for the results to be insignificant on a geographic basis. But, because of the considerable differences between 2- and 4-year institutions, it was determined that information should be calculated separately for these two types of programs. Since 13 community colleges and 13 universities were included in the 26 cases, this decision presented no statistical difficulties. However, the reader is cautioned not to attempt to make comparative, qualitative judgments between these two types of institutions on the basis of the data described herein. Differences in the results reported from these two types of programs are likely natural reflections of the differing nature of their emphases and should not be interpreted as reflecting either positively or negatively on one or the other.

APPENDIX E

ACCREDITATION--ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION

By

GORDON E. MISNER
Director, Department of Administration of Justice
University of Missouri
(St. Louis)

A Paper Prepared Especially for the National Manpower Survey

August 6, 1976

Accreditation--its implications for criminal justice education

by

Gordon E. Misner

I. Introduction:

In 1931, the first degree-granting program dealing with police science in a collegiate setting was established at San Jose State University. In the last ten years, "criminal justice" has become probably the fastest growing field of study in the history of American higher education. There are now nearly one thousand such programs, enrolling more than 100,000 students. The rapid growth, and the mutations and permutations which have evolved since those early beginnings in San Jose, have created some horrendous problems for the criminal justice practitioner, for college and university administrators, and for the faculty and students enrolled in programs. These same problems have also created difficulties for various governmental officials and agencies which have had some direct relationship to criminal justice education, e.g. the Veterans Administration and L.E.A.A.

It is time to explore the matter of specialized accrediting for criminal justice. First, however, we need to take a brief look at the whole matter of accreditation. There are various definitions and explanations of the process and the functions of accreditation. Dickey, for example, offers the following concise definition:

> Accreditation is a process by which schools are evaluated and recognized as having met specific standards of adequacy or excellence.[1]

The Council on Postsecondary Accreditation (COPA) explains the function and process in the following manner:

> Accreditation denotes that there has been a third-party examination and evaluation, usually by peers, through some mutually agreed-upon process in order to arrive at a quality determination of that which is being examined. The results of that assessment are then made publicly available as an indication to all interested parties of the quality that was perceived and attested to by disinterested parties.[2]

COPA and others emphasizes the fact that accreditation in the United States is voluntary and non-governmental. These are important elements to bear in mind in any consideration of accreditation; so are the elements of quality determination, peer evaluation and judgment by a set of specific standards. William Selden puts the matter in perspective, however, when he says, quite simply and quite emphatically,

> "Accrediting is basically, a struggle over standards in higher education."

Dickey and others maintain that accreditation of the sort we are talking about is unique, found only in the United States.[4] This is the result of the unusually high degree of autonomy which institutions of higher education have in this country, operating as they do in a nation which lacks any centralized, governmental control over the educational enterprise. Kaplin refers to the governing of post secondary education in the following way:

> "/It is characterized by/...a dispersed conglomeration of governmental and private activity which Harold Howe once called a 'non-system to the second power'."[5]

In addition to its uniqueness to this nation, accreditation is a complicated process which actually involves the performances of a triad. This triad consists of Federal and State governments, and approximately fifty regional or specialized non-governmental accrediting agencies.

Neither the Federal nor the State governments accredit institutions or programs.[6] Rather, each essentially relies on private accrediting agencies to perform this task. Essentially, the function of the Federal government in this field is three-fold: 1.) the establishment of national spending priorities; 2.) the performance of some "consumer protection" functions; and 3.) the provision of some technical assistance and the exercise of leadership.[7]

The functions of State governments are quite different. Normally, the States perform the functions of incorporating or chartering higher education institutions. In addition, many State governments provide a licensure function, and in many cases there is a direct and regular relationship between licensure and accreditation. State governments are often involved in providing varying degrees of consumer protection in the field of higher education. Finally, most states have established and operate their own systems of postsecondary education.[8]

The actual work of accreditation is performed, however, by a variety of regional and specialized accrediting agencies. As Kaplin points out, "...no uniformly applicable statement of accreditations' purposes and functions is possible."[9] Kaplin goes on to postulate that,

> Although greater consensus is likely to develop under the leadership of the new Council on Postsecondary Accreditation, differences among agencies will continue to exist and an understanding of accreditation's purposes and functions will depend as much on identifying differences as upon defining the consensus.[10]

Essentially, there are two types of accreditation, "institutional" and "specialized or programmatic."[11] Institutional accreditation is performed by one of the six regional accrediting associations which divide the nation, for example, the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools. Institutional accreditation is directed exclusively at the evaluation of a total institution. There is no emphasis on a particular department or set of individual departments or disciplines.

> Institutional accreditation does not validate a specialized program in the same manner, nor to the same extent as does specialized accreditation.[12]

Specialized accreditation does, on the other hand, focus its attention on particular programs or sets of departments within an institution. Medicine, law, engineering are classic examples of fields of study which operate under specialized accreditation procedures.

> The unit accredited may be as large as a college or school within a university or as small as a curriculum within a discipline.[13]

The more one becomes familiar with accreditation, the more inclined one is to understand the complexities of the matter, and to appreciate the controversies which have understandably arisen in debates over the matter. For the general citizen, or for even the educator who is operating peripherally to accreditation, however, there is a tendency to take accreditation for granted, something which has always existed for the "common good."

Actually, accreditation as an evaluative process is relatively new to higher education, dating essentially to the turn of the century. In the professions, accreditation dates back only to early interest on the part of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, and the Foundation's support of Abraham Flexner's study of medical education. Even the serious member of the general public may feel the matter of accreditation is a neutral topic, that only the worst of the institutions and practitioners would be opposed to evaluation. Actually, debates over accreditation have given rise to some of the stormiest controversies in higher education. In this regard, Selden quotes President F.O. Pinkham who said of accreditation:

> /It is/...an elusive, nebulous, jellyfish term that means different things to different people and different things to the same people. In trying to bring representatives of various points of view together, it has been most difficult to mediate differences among people who do not agree on what it is on what they do not agree, and I might add on which they disagree violently, emotionally, and dogmatically. No one, it seems, can be dispassionate about accrediting.[14]

Accreditation came into being as a response to the disorder which characterized the early growth and development of higher education, particularly the development of education for the professions. Noble in purpose, accreditation was a specific response to various pressures: to protect the consumers, to guarantee honest advertising, to assist in transfer of academic credits, and to aid in raising the quality of professional education. Inevitably, accreditation has been linked with the overall improvement in the quality of life in the United States. Some would make the point that the high quality medical service, high standards in general health care, and excellence in engineering and architectural service, etc. are directly attributable to the rigors of self-policing and accreditation.

The recognized accrediting bodies perform a variety of functions. Some of these functions are commonly shared by a number of agencies, but some are unique to only a small number of accrediting groups. In 1971, the Office of Education listed nine specific functions of accreditation. These were, as follows:

1. Certifying that an institution has met established standards;
2. Assisting prospective students in identifying acceptable institutions;
3. Assisting institutions in determining the acceptability of transfer credit;
4. Helping to identify institutions and programs for investment of public and private funds;
5. Protecting an institution against harmful internal and external pressures;
6. Creating goals for self-improvement of weaker programs and stimulating a general raising of standards among educational institutions;

7. Involving the faculty and staff comprehensively in institutional evaluation and planning;

8. Establishing criteria for professional certification, licensure, and for upgrading courses offering such preparation; and

9. Providing one basis for determining eligibility for federal assistance.[15]

In a recent study, Jerry Miller surveyed the stated goals and philosophy statements of all of the then existing recognized accrediting groups. From this examination, he abstracted what he believed the two basic, primary functions of accreditation. These, he stated in the following way:

> Public function
>
> "To identify for public purposes educational institutions and programs of study which meet established standards of educational quality."
>
> Educational function
>
> "To stimulate improvement in educational standards and in educational institutions and programs of study by involving faculty and staff in required self-evaluation, research, and planning."[16]

One of the outstanding features of higher education in this nation is its reliance upon a system of extra-mural evaluation. Earlier, the point was made that accreditation in the United States is voluntary and non-governmental. This is technically correct, but Miller offers a caveat.

> The institution of nongovernmental accreditation is decreasingly referred to as a voluntary endeavor. Its influence in education and society is so encompassing and pervasive...that accreditation is virtually mandatory for the successful operation of educational institutions and their programs of study.[17]

II. The Need for Accreditation of Criminal Justice Programs:

The author has previously called for the specialized accreditation of criminal justice programs.[18] The rationale for such a recommendation is found in both the history of criminal justice education's development, in its current status, and in its future needs. Although its growth has been much more meteoric than other fields of academic study, criminal justice education is faced with many of the same problems as other professional and career-oriented fields have been.[19]

Elsewhere in this volume, data about the growth of criminal justice education is given. No one disputes the incredible and sudden increase in the number of programs or the number of students enrolled. The author has estimated that in 1975, more than one hundred million dollars of direct Federal support was being given to criminal justice education programs and their students.[20] When the author entered the teaching field at San Jose in 1956, there were no more than 30 programs nationally, enrolling less than 5,000 students. Now, we have an estimated 1,000 programs--of varying quality--and have more than 100,000 students enrolled in classes.

In addition to the changes in the magnitude of the numbers, there have been equally important other changes. The original program at San Jose was entitled "The Police School," and very clearly its preoccupation was the training of in-service and pre-service police students. The bulk of the programs throughout the nation even today, still place a primary emphasis on the policing aspect of criminal justice, although probably less than one quarter of the programs have as narrow an orientation as the first San Jose program in 1931.

Although some programs retain such titles for their operations as "Police Administration" or "Law Enforcement," it is obvious that at least lip service is now being paid to system-wide criminal justice problems and issues. It is difficult for many programs to develop substantial interest in the non-police aspects of criminal justice. This is due to narrow faculty interest, inadequate faculty preparation, the isolated locale of some programs, or the primary interest of both in-service and pre-service students. In addition, quite frankly, the source of outside funding and other support for many programs is clearly linked to a continuing and exclusive focus upon the police.

We agree with Selden and his propounding of "Gresham's Law on Academic Quality." What he stated was as follows:

> ...AS A SOCIETY PLACES GREATER VALUE ON THE ATTAINMENT OF ACADEMIC DEGREES, THE DEGREES FROM COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES WHOSE ACADEMIC DEGREES ARE SUPERFICIAL AND SHODDY WILL UNDERMINE THE VALUE OF SIMILAR DEGREES FROM INSTITUTIONS WHOSE EDUCATIONAL OFFERINGS ARE EXCELLENT.[21]

The author knows of no other field of academic endeavor in which Selden's "Gresham's Law" is as apt and descriptive!

We are deluding ourselves if we think that the rapid growth of criminal justice education is directly linked with some grand plan or as part of an overall program of sustained and thoughtful interest in criminal justice systems improvements. In this writer's opinion, large numbers of programs would vanish soon after the evaporation of Federal support. Although the beginnings of the field were clearly not tied to enticements of Federal largesse, recent spectacular growth clearly has been. San Jose State, Michigan State, California, Washington State, Indiana, and others, all developed programs which antedated Federal involvement in the field by at least a decade. They were "old timers" by the time the "Safe Streets Act" was passed in 1968. In the case of community colleges, the pattern of development is less clear and less well known. Probably, however, the prime motivation for their becoming involved was Federal support through vocational education funding. On the other hand, clearly part of the explanation for community college entrance into the field was their attempt to respond to actual community training needs.

The point to be made is that criminal justice as a field of academic endeavor didn't have a single origin, but a series of origins. This explains, in part, something of the problems we now find existing in the field. There was a defensible and legitimate interest on the part of some academic administrators to serve criminal justice, as an important or crucial governmental sector of society. But these administrators and the criminal justice faculty whom they hired were seldom met with open arms by other academics. Often, pioneers in criminal justice had to spend a significant portion of their time attempting to legitimatize their very existence on campus.

Unlike political science, public administration, psychology, sociology, and many other "traditional" disciplines, criminal justice as a field of study did not spring logically from a single existing body of knowledge or academic discipline. There seldom were common allies in already thriving academic fields. In each of the early cases, criminal justice arrived on the campus as a suspected "outsider." Its arrival on campus was the result of a peculiar set of idiosyncratic circumstances. For example, Berkeley Chief of Police August Vollmer was able to convince San Jose State President Thomas MacQuarrie that police administration and police science were legitimate fields of academic endeavor, that San Jose State could pioneer this important educational development. President MacQuarrie "bought" the idea! The actors may have changed, but the scenarios were similar at California, Michigan State, Washington State and a few other early schools.

Having arrived in this fashion, however, meant that criminal justice could not have sprung from the same intellectual well. The early faculties of criminal justice-type programs had diverse training, seldom possessing graduate degrees. Most came from political science or from vocational education; almost all had accumulated "street experience" in the police field. To the author's knowledge, none of these early instructors had any career objective in collegiate teaching. Rather, their arrival on campuses was the result of fortuitous personal circumstance, rather than conscious preparation. The purpose here is not to denigrate these honorable beginnings, but to place the development of the field into some sort of historical context. To ignore these beginnings is to overlook an important and crucial point in understanding the development of criminal justice education.

Until recently, there was no endeavor to engage cooperatively in a systematic development of the field. Until the mid-1960's many of the existing four-year programs accepted transfer credit from community colleges without any real regard to their "fit" into an educational philosophy. One California junior college, for example, offered a total of 95 credit hours in police science! Many junior college programs were nothing more than decelerated police academies, accomplishing in two years what the better academies were able to do in sixteen weeks!

By 1960, many unsuspecting junior college students, seeking to transfer their associate degree credits to four-year programs, were confronted with loss of as much as a full year of academic work. Long Beach State University led the way in California for four-year program resistance to over-concentration of work in the major field.

In an attempt to bring some sort of order to junior college programming in the field, the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges sponsored the development of a set of guidelines prepared by Crockett and Stinchcomb. Myren's "California Study" was the first statewide attempt to bring some semblance of order into the academic marketplaces of criminal justice.[22]

The application of vocational education funding to law enforcement training turned criminal justice education into a real "enterprise." Anything passing as either criminal justice education or police vocational training became suddenly very attractive financially to some college administrators. This environment almost guaranteed a litany of horror stories. In 1969, the sudden availability of L.E.A.A. institutional development grants and educational assistance funds for students guaranteed the perpetuation of the situation!

> The horror stories in criminal justice are legion; most members of the Academy [of Criminal Justice Science] can surely 'tick off' ten or so instances of their own knowledge...[23]

> Many of us are aware that this field--as with any other fast-growing, Federally-funded enterprise--has its share of hustlers, fast-buck artists, and educational charlatans.[24]

At this point, it is appropriate to recall a point made by Miller in speaking generally about the need for accreditation.

> The alternative [to accreditation] is complete reliance upon open competition among institutions and programs of study, restrained only by the concept of *caveat emptor*, a philosophy disdained by contemporary society.[25]

A classic contemporary example is a brochure distributed in May of 1976, announcing a 250-hour "Polygraph Examiner Course," conducted for an accredited college by a private consulting firm. Among other things, the advertising brochure contained the following information.

> [The college]...awards *twelve (12) semester units of academic credit* for the successful completion of all course requirements. These units are in the 400 series and can be used for *graduate* as well as undergraduate credit. [The college] is *fully accerdited* [sic] *through the Master's Degree* by the Western Association of Schools and Colleges.
>
> Both [the consulting firm] and [the college] are *approved by the [state] Department of Education* and G.I. benefits are available.
>
> At the present time *no formal education beyond high school graduation is required*. *A thorough background investigation is conducted* of all applicants. They are given a written test, *a polygraph examination*, and are screened by a special board to determine their fitness to benefit from the instruction offered and to represent [the consulting firm] as polygraphers. Commission of a *disclosed* or *undisclosed felony*, or *misdemeanor* involving moral turpitude, will disqualify an applicant.[26]

One of the more interesting facts is that almost the entire instructional staff for this course is officially affiliated with a neighboring public institution which does *not* grant academic credit!

Diversity is surely one of the great strengths of American higher education, but it also guarantees a wide variation in standards and in quality among various, competing institutions! It is important to re-emphasize a point made earlier about the function of institutional (or regional) accreditation.

> [Institutional] accreditation makes no public distinction in the quality of any single institution's individual programs of study....Regional accreditation is never intended to imply that all programs are equally strong or that all individual programs have attained minimum quality.[27]

The example of the polygraph course is surely a good example of some of the abuses which can and have taken place in the criminal justice field. It is cited only because of its current occurrence and its blatant mockery of academic standards. As an example, it raises a series of justifiable concerns about the appropriateness of academic credit being granted. Surely, however, this is not the only example. Academic credit is being granted by some institutions for everything from "night-vision" and "threshold inquiry" to "electronic surveillance" and "firearms maintenance." In the polygraph example, the fact that graduate credit is being granted for a course of instruction requiring only a high school education is particularly puzzling and novel!

The emergence of interest in "non-traditional education" and credit of "life experiences" is only the latest gambit to muddle the concerns of criminal justice education. Without denigrating "non-traditional" approaches to the granting of collegiate credit, one can easily cite abuses which have resulted from over-zealous indulgence of this new delivery system. Many institutions now grant credit for completion of police academy courses of instruction. In some cases, as many as 24 semester hours of credit have been granted for 200-400 hours of academy instruction, despite the fact that many academies admit that their instruction is geared at the eighth-grade level! In addition, academy instructors often have no affiliation--nor indeed are eligible for affiliation--with an accredited institution. One institution, to the author's knowledge, grants as many as 36 credit hours for "life experience." Interestingly, the number of hours of academic credit given for "living" seems directly proportional to the applicant's rank or other political considerations! Obviously, in the case of these sorts of abuses, legitimate, let us even say traditional, academic standards are thrown to the winds.

> Who are the losers in the current chaos? Only the students, who invest their money and time in obtaining an 'education,' and the general public which--directly or indirectly--foots the bill for the 'educational investment.'[28]

It seems that we should at least be able to insist on honesty in labeling the educational product. Unfortunately, we can not even do this under the present circumstances.

III. Recurrent Support and Opposition to the Notion of Accreditation:

It has been suggested here that the notion of accreditation was as virtuous and as socially necessary as the function of motherhood. After all, who could quarrel with the concepts of public accountability, quality control, and the maintenance of high standards in higher education? Actually, in the history of the movement toward accreditation, a succession of arguments have been used to oppose not only the extension but also even the very existence of accreditation efforts. On the occasion of its tenth anniversary in 1965, J.B. Hefferlin, the Assistant Director of the National Commission on Accrediting traced the history of the accreditation movement.[29] He began by pointing out that the Commission "...was conceived by dissatisfaction, born out of chaos, and reared in confusion."[30] A so-called "Presidential Revolt" over the notion of monitoring by outside groups began in the old Association of Land Grant Colleges and University and the National Association of State Universities. Eventually, this resulted in the formation of the National Commission on Accrediting, actually one of the historical antecedents of the new Council on Post-secondary Accreditation.[31]

Essentially, arguments against the notion of accreditation have centered around three basic themes: 1.) the old traditional arguments centered on natural tensions between the liberal arts and the newer professional fields; 2.) suspicions about the vested interest of many professional accrediting groups; and 3.) arguments which view accreditation efforts as mere "barnacles" to any educational experimentation and innovation.[32]

The dispute between the "traditionalists" in the liberal arts and the emerging professional groups needs no particular reiteration here. More effective criticism centered around the alleged "guild protectionism" of some of the early accrediting groups in the professions. Harkening back to some of the earlier arguments, Miller states that there are still some residual feelings, "...the agencies are often accused of serving private and professional interest to the detriment of the social good."[33] Dickey maintains, however, and Miller would surely concur that,

> These abuses of accrediting have generally disappeared as a result of sharp public criticism and of the recognition by accrediting groups of their larger social responsibilities.[34]

By and large, the weight of this particular set of arguments against accreditation have diminished as the result of public pressure focussed through the National Commission on Accrediting and C.O.P.A., its successor organization. Furthermore, case law now provides some important public and due process protections.[35]

The "barnacles" argument[36] is perhaps a more serious problem, for it is much more difficult to challenge and refute. However, with increased, governmental monitoring and the likelihood of judicial scrutiny in "unusual" cases, accrediting agencies will probably be extremely cautious in attempting to impede "progress."

> Due process would basically require that accrediting agencies utilize fair procedures which afford institutions and programs a reasonable opportunity to defend themselves against adverse accrediting decisions, and that accrediting decisions not be arbitrary, irrational, or capricious.[37]

It would seem, therefore, that safeguards now exist which would prevent accreditation from becoming an impedence to non-traditional approaches to curriculum development, instructional techniques, and other attempts at experimentation and innovation. Disclosure, notice, review, and hearing are key elements of the accreditation process; they provide safeguards against the incrustations of unjustified traditionalism.

Perhaps the most serious argument against accreditation, particularly specialized accreditation, is that the cumulative effect of multiple reviews imposes an unnecessary paperwork burden on institutional administrators. In the case of large, complex institutions, as many as thirty different accreditation processes in a span of three years is entirely possible. For example, it is conceivable that a large institution could undergo accreditation team visitations in clinical psychology, medicine, engineering, chemistry, law, and so forth during a relatively short span of time. Collegiate administrators contend that the paperwork and the direct and indirect cost of such extra-mural reviews is reaching monstrous proportions. There is collective resistance to increasing this potential drain on resources, to put a stop to the recognition of additional specialized accreditation agencies.

The weight of this set of arguments must be recognized as a legitimate institutional concern. Wherever possible, specialized groups should surely work together to reduce this burden on institutional resources. In the case of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, conscientious efforts are being made to adopt a set of uniform institutional review instruments, thereby reducing unnecessary paperwork. Arrogant insistence on the use of a unique set of forms is not only unconscionable; it is also self-defeating for the accreditation process. Institutions have justifiable concerns, particularly as new governmental scrutiny in several aspects of institutional affairs seeems to be increasing in alarming proportions. Hopefully, as resistance to outside regulation increases, so will the necessity to resolve unnecessary duplications of effort. Selden, Miller, and countless others recognize the justified criticisms of earlier accreditation efforts. COPA is also sensitive to these criticisms. At the same time, appeals to a return to the completely free, unregulated marketplace of higher education found in an earlier era have virtually disappeared, because of their lack of realism.[38]

In discussing the necessity of accreditation endeavors, Miller cited a poll taken some years ago, involving more than 1,000 college and university presidents.[39] They were almost unanimous in their opinion that some form of institutional accreditation was desirable. Miller quotes the "Preamble" to the By-laws of the old National Commission on Accrediting:

> ...accrediting agencies have often been instruments for the maintenance of high educational standards; they have protected society against inadequately prepared professional and technical practitioners; they have aided licensing authorities and facilitated the transfer of students; they have been helpful to students and parents seeking to identify sound institutions; they have aided institutions in withstanding improper political and other non-educational pressures; and they have stimulated broad consideration of educational problems and issues of more than local concern.[40]

Miller contends, and this writer would concur, that accreditation is the "single most important indicator of quality" in higher education in this country.[41] Accreditation as a protection to the public falls short only to the extent to which its evaluation of an institution or programs within that institution is faulty or incomplete.

IV. ACJS Interest and Endeavors in Accreditation:

The Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences is the only nationwide professional organization composed of persons holding full-time faculty appointments in criminal justice-type collegiate programs. Only persons holding full-time academic appointments in accredited institutions at the time of application are eligible for membership.[42] Members of the Academy belong to other professional organizations, of course. Being an eclectic, multi-disciplinary field of study, many members of the Academy also belong to such groups as the American Political Science Association, the American Bar Association, the American Society of Criminology, the American Academy of Forensic Science, the American Sociological Association, the American Psychological Association, etc. The important distinction of ACJS is its primary focus on criminal justice education and research, despite the particular disciplinary background of the individual members.

Throughout its relatively short thirteen year history, some would say that the Academy has been "preoccupied" by the matter of accreditation. Certainly, the matter of accreditation and standards has been an central issue at most of its annual meetings. Because of its sudden emergence as a legitimate and serious field of study and endeavor, those of us in criminal justice found it necessary to spend a long period of time "working out" various ideas, educational philosophies, and curricular issues. From approximately 1967 to 1970, many of us--the writer included--felt that the appropriate focus for our interest should be through the six regional accrediting bodies. Many of us were reluctant to for the Academy to take on the arduous chore of accreditation.

To some extent, some of our members were used effectively, principally by the New York Board of Regents, by the Southern Association, and occasionally by one of the regional L.E.A.A. offices. To a greater extent, however, many of us saw the abuses in the field grow, with obviously more and more unprepared institutions entering a temporarily lucrative field. In many cases, our members resented the extent to which some institutions were exploiting them, frustrating them in efforts to build sound and needed academic programs. In a few cases, the person in charge of a criminal justice program was nothing more than an appropriately credentialed "bag man!"

Interest in accreditation was initiated in earnest in 1974 with the appointment of a stadning committee on Accreditation and Standards. Headed by Larry Bassi of New York State's Niagara County Community College, the Accreditation Committee began the complicated and time-consuming task of putting together a set of Guidelines, as the first task in seeking recognition as an accrediting agency. The Committee, consisting usually of fifteen active participants, was broadly based and consisted of members representing the entire spectrum of criminal justice--police, prosecution, corrections, etc.--as well as members from private as well as public institutions. Junior colleges, four-year programs, and graduate institutions were also represented. The practitioner field as well as the academic field was also represented on the committee.[43]

The methodology involved both a division of labor among members of the committee and the synergistic amalgam of ideas from the total membership of the committee during the drafting phase of the endeavor. The resulting document appropriately can be said to be the collective work of the entire committee. In addition, the final Guideline document took into consideration the ideas of many outside groups which were asked for comment.

Apparently, the membership of the Academy respected the worth of the document. It was overwhelmingly approved as an *official* statement of the Academy, at the March, 1976 meeting in Dallas. Only three members cast dissenting votes!

The document addresses a series of separate issues in criminal justice education. In addition to establishing a set of guidelines for the achievement of standards, the document is implicitly directed at achieving *parity* for criminal justice education. The underlying philosophy of the statement is that criminal justice is every bit as legitimate a field of academic study as are more traditional disciplines such as philosophy, chemistry, mathematics, political science, etc.

> [Why do we have to justify our existence]...when similar demands are not made of chemists, historians, philosophers, sociologists, etc....We should be prepared to defy anyone from proving that *any other subject* is more imperative in the general education of undergraduates than a familiarization with the criminal jsutice process, a social process which impinges, directly or indirectly, on the entire adult lives of all of us.[44]

Throughout the document, we were saying essentially that we wanted to be treated no differently than anyone else on the campus. We want our faculty-student ratios to be no larger than any other comparable field of study; we wanted the same proportion of full-time and part-time staff; we wanted our students to have as many advantages--no more and no less--than the students in other fields of study. We were saying that we were tired of being forced to whore in order to support an important and legitimate field of academic endeavor.

The guidelines, themselves, focus specific attention on a series of related matters. The concept was directed at propounding a set of minimum standards, hoping to "generate a spirit of quality consciousness" among criminal justice educators.[45] Rather than discouraging experimentation and innovation, the guidelines seek to encourage institutions to exceed the standards in every respect. No attempt was made to concoct a uniform, universal set of program objectives. Instead, the guidelines provided that every criminal justice program should have a "clearly defined purpose and should incorporate this definition into a statement of the program's educational and social role."[46] It also suggested that there be a periodic review of this statement, with broad faculty involvement. The point is that most programs around the nation came into being without a clear set of educational and social objectives. The Academy statement is emphatic on declaring the need for such a set of objectives, without seeking to specify what those objectives should be, thereby recognizing the diversity which does, and should, exist in the field.

The guidelines provide that the administrative identity of the criminal justice program should be on a parity with other similar programs, and consonant with the organizational mode of that particular institution. Criminal justice, should not, for example, have "Program" status while other similar units have been given "Departmental" status. Irrespective of organizational mode, the program should have "at least one full-time faculty member or administrator whose primary responsibility is the administration and direction of the Criminal Justice program."[47] This may seem a strange and unnecessary provision, but not if one realizes that there are literally dozens of programs around the nation which do not have a single full-time member of the faculty! Instead, reliance is often placed exclusively on part-time instructors, one of whom is honorifically called the "Director!" There are some programs--in both two-year and four-year institutions--where the Director is actually a "recruiter" or "developer," being paid strictly on a per capita basis. If that person can convince enough unsuspecting students about the worth of the program, he (she) gets paid; if not, there is no loss to the institution. Obviously, this provision of the guidelines assists in evaluating the actual long-term commitment of the institution to criminal justice education; without a "hard-money" investment in the form of at least one full-time staff member, there obviously is no institutional commitment!

In regard to curriculum matters, the guidelines direct attention at the process of curricular design, the necessity for involving students, faculty, and outside experts in a continuing process of updating.[48] The statement recognizes the multi-disciplinary character of criminal justice, as well as the fact that at least a portion of the curriculum should be professionally oriented. The statement also cautions against overspecialization in criminal justice and on the mix between junior college and senior college credits, declaring that, "...at least one-half of required major field courses should be in the upper division."[49] It then attempts to address the thorny issue of granting credit for basic academy training.

> Credit should be given only when the instruction is under the direction and control of a degree-granting institution. Instruction must be given by persons holding academic appointments by accredited institutions. Quality control criteria for the granting of credit in Criminal Justice should be no different than those in other fields at the institution.[50]

In the area of faculty qualifications, the Academy statement attempted to be realistic in terms of the current needs for faculty as well as the present availability of qualified faculty. On the associate-degree level, the possession of a law degree or a master's degree was considered minimum requirements. The same qualifications were spelled out for baccaluareate programs, with the added specification that a "...majority of the faculty must hold an earned doctorate appropriate to their teaching areas."[51] For graduate programs, the specifications were for the earned doctorate "appropriate to their teaching/research areas."[52] In all cases, the statement specified the same requirements for part-time as it did for full-time faculty. The statement also provided an "escape" or "grandfather" clause, putting the burden on the institution to explain and justify departure from those faculty standards. Committee members recognized the fact that there were many capable faculty, both part-time and full-time, who did not meet these technical requirements. There did not seem to be any particular difficulty in "qualifying" these demonstrably capable persons to an evaluation team.

At the same time, the members felt strongly that we had approached the time when qualified faculty were available, if an institution made a real effort to find them! There are too many instances where the laissez faire attitude of some in criminal justice education allowed "market demands" for credentialling to exceed institutional resources. There are in the nation, for example, so-called graduate programs with enrollments of 200 to 400 master's degree students without a single doctorate on the faculty! That we felt was an absolutely unconscionable practice, incapable of justification. The alternatives for the institution are clear, either hire sufficient qualified faculty for graduate teaching, or reduce the number of students to be served! We knew of no one who could reasonably defend some current practices in the field.

Educational institutions, the same as other enterprises, also had a responsibility in terms of their own internal manpower development obligations. Qualified, and potentially qualified faculty are deserving of certain institution support for their professional development. Therefore, the guidelines addressed these issues.[53]

Joining the issues of parity and faculty workloads, the guidelines provided that, "The number of full-time Criminal Justice teaching faculty members shall be determined in the same manner as are other full-time teaching faculty in other disciplines..."[5] The guidelines provided that the *maximum* ratio of full-time-equivalent faculty to students should be 1:60 for undergraduate programs and 1:20 in graduate programs.[55] For the person outside academe, this may seem like a classic case of "feather-bedding." Actually, those figures are probably more than reasonable limits, if one considers the duties other than teaching which are *directly* related to the teaching function, i.e. class preparation, student advising and counseling, professional reading, etc. In the case of graduate instruction, research is presumed to be another duty direclty related to teaching.

The guidelines also address the issue of balance between full-time and part-time staff. There are numberous instances around the nation where programs with more than 400 enrolled majors have only a single full-time faculty member. The bulk of teaching is obviously performed by part-time instructors. Even presuming their dedication and competence, part-time faculty have a limited utility in terms of a total educational program. With few exceptions adjunct or part-time instructors are hired solely for the performance of instruction duties; they do not share in the other chores which go into the toal departmental educational program, e.g. career and academic counselling, committee work, etc. There is simply no way in which a single full-time faculty member can even begin to service 400 or more students!

The Guidelines set some standards for the mix of full-time and part-time faculty. In associate degree programs, they provided that no more than fifty per cent of the annual credit hour production should be taught by part-time staff; for baccalaureate programs, no more than thirty per cent, and for graduate programs, no more than twenty-five per cent.[56]

Faculty quality, of course, depends on much more than mere credentialing. In the minds of many persons in the Academy, quality also involves the concept of "renewal" through the "currency" of their experience in their fields. A number of years ago, Richard Myren, SUNY-Albany's Dean of Criminal Justice advanced the idea of "self-destruct" degrees in criminal justice--not only for students, but also for faculty. In other words, the mere attainment of a particular level of competence does not assure continued competence, in criminal justice or many other fields. Without constant, deliberate renewal, the criminal justice faculty member--and practitioner--begins operating with sets of obsolete skills. Variations of this same concept, of course, are common place in fields as diverse as teacher education, law, business administration, and the medical sciences.

Although the Academy Guidelines do not explicitly address this issue, this feature is implicitly provided for in the sections dealing with faculty qualifications and development.

The Guidelines addressed other issues such as student services, learning resource centers, and related facets of the total educational program. Reference to these matters is not, however, germane to the present discussion of the document. Suffice it to say that the Guidelines have attempted to address every possible issue which affects the quality of postsecondary programs in criminal justice. We recognized that experience with application of the Guidelines to specific institutional settings would probably demonstrate need for minor additions.

Making the assumption that the Guidelines would be adopted in March, 1976, the Committee prepared a PERT planning document outlining additional steps which needed to be taken in order to become recognized as the official, national accrediting agency in criminal justice. The timetable provides the following major milestones:

April, 1976 -- official organizational liaison begins with COPA

July, 1976 -- draft instruments for institutional evaluations prepared and reviewed

Sept., 1976 -- initiate regional training sessions for potential ACJS evaluators

Dec., 1976 -- submit review documentation to COPA

Dec., 1977 -- establish an ACJS organizational structure specifically for accreditation matters

June, 1977 -- receive official COPA recognition as the criminal justice accrediting agency

It is anticipated, therefore, that it will take the Academy approximately two years to obtain the necessary review and approval from the Council on Postsecondary Accreditation. During that time, of course, a number of different but related activities will still be going on, namely the design, testing, and modification of evaluation instruments, the encouragement of a limited number of institutional self-evaluations, and the development of a large resource pool of evaluators. Throughout this phase and for the foreseeable future, it is to be hoped that members of the Academy involved in accreditation matters will remember words of caution offered by Jerry Miller:

> ...the evaluation of educational institutions and their programs is an art, not a science, and is therefore heavily dependent upon the expertise and subjective judgments of professionals.[57]

A written statement by the North Central Association is also worthy of emphasis, namely:

> ...it is easy to understand why our evaluative personnel ...have come to see themselves as educational consultants rather than inspectors of minimum educational standards.

A primary goal of accreditation, after all, is the improvement of quality in higher education.

V. Relevant issues in the future of criminal justice education:

Kenneth W. Thompson wrote recently that since World War II, serious thinking persons in the United States had been engaged in "three great debates."

> The third great debate, interlinked with the first two, has been joined on the educational front as all of us have struggled to answer the questions: Education for what? For whom? How and where?....[59]

Since World War II, we have been unconsciously and probably undeliberately working through pragmatically the educational issues posed by populist vs. elitist ideologies. Perhaps accidentally, the post-World War II G.I. Bill gave rise to the greatest populist surge in higher educational endeavors in the history of the nation. The primary increase in collegiate enrollments, after all, took place among the sons and daughters of blue collar and unskilled workers. The children of middle class and wealthy parents probably were destined for college educations even without the subsidies provided by the Veterans Administration.

Despite the obvious personal and social benefits derived from the G.I. benefits, the arguments still rage over the advantages of higher education for the masses. The arguments are no longer confined to esoteric discussions in seminars and foundation board rooms. Since Governor Ronald Reagan's disputes with the California system of higher education, the setting for the arguments has moved to the living rooms and the taverns of middle America. And still the battle rages. Skirmishes will probably continue to be fought so long as governments--State and National--make significant financial contributions for the direct cost of higher education. There can be no consideration of issues in criminal justice education without some reference to these larger policy issues--both governmental and educational.

Policy at the Federal level is central to any discussion of criminal justice education. As was pointed out earlier, the Federal government has been importantly involved in supporting some aspect of criminal justice training and education since the mid-1930s, beginning then under the rubric of giving support for vocational education.[60] Federal subsidies under the Smith-Hughes-George-Dean Acts gave the first big extra-mural impetus to the development of college-level police education programs.

Beginning in the mid-1960s, a succession of Presidential or other national commissioned studies pointed to the critical need for higher education for criminal justice practitioners, especially for the police.[61] In fact, it was the work of the President's Commission which brought into being the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration and its L.E.E.P. monies to support students enrolled in such educational programs. Subsequently, it was the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals which recommended that,

> Every police agency should, no later than 1982, require as a condition of initial employment the completion of at least 4 years of education...at an accredited college or university.[62]

The Federal government, therefore, has played the dominant leadership role in the development and continued support for criminal justice training and education. It is difficult to imagine a significant reduction in Federal support, given this history and the Standards and Goals recommendations. L.E.E.P. funding would be a classic example of what Boyer calls "mission-oriented" support of higher education.[63]

Discussion of governmental support or assistance leads logically to the question of which level of government is the most feasible source of the support. Frederick Rudolph makes a compelling case for the locus being at the Federal level.

> ...because of the increased mobility of the American people, a good case can be made for more federal and less state support....Since some of our states export many college graduates, while others import many graduates...a larger amount of federal assistance would seem to be the only way of distributing the cost fairly to all who are likely to profit from it.[64]

Boyer links large-scale support to specific missions, identified as national policy concerns.

> What I can endorse...is an arrangement whereby public monies are provided...institutions for explicitly identified public missions, under ground rules clearly understood by both the public agencies and the...institutions....
>
> Based on this principle, a whole new pattern of public support for both public and private universities could emerge in this country. I can envision a plan in which a state identifies as clearly as possible the special educational tasks it wishes to see undertaken and sets the accountability standards that must be met...[65]

The Standards and Goals endeavor presumed that there was still room for much improvement in the justice delivery system. Rightly or wrongly, they also concluded that criminal justice education was directly keyed to some of this improvement.

The Nixon administration made clear that the recommendations of the Standards and Goals Commission were not binding upon the States. At the same time, many local and state officials "got the message" that there was an intent on the part of some Federal officials to make progress toward Standards and Goals a pre-condition to continued Federal funding under L.E.A.A. In many--if not most cases--neither local or state officials feel they have the resources to replace federal academic assistance, should the L.E.E.P. program be discontinued.

The role of state governments is related, but distinct from that of the Federal government. From a legal point of view, states perform essentially three functions: 1.) chartering or incorporating institutions; 2.) establishing licensure requirements for various professions and vocations; and 3.) serving as the "State Approving Agency" for the Veterans Administration.[66] Clearly, however, state governments are precluded from becoming involved directly in matters of accreditation. Except for the unique case of the New York Board of Regents, the National Commission on Accrediting adopted a policy statement years ago opposed to recognizing any state agency as a specialized accrediting agency, even within its own jurisdiction.[67]

Similar to the Federal government, states can and do involve themselves in the setting of priorities for higher education. They do this automatically every budget year when they appropriate monies for the direct support of their own systems of higher education. They also do this whenever they assign particular functions to coordinating boards. In addition, of course, are the special education areas when states establish specific programs to encourage the development of a particular field.

Another function which is properly within the realm of state government responsibility is the insistence upon formal articulation agreements between segments of public higher education. Dozens of states have accomplished this, either legislatively or through discrete pressure on their state universities and colleges. Finally, of particular importance in the criminal justice field, forty-five state governments have established minimum police/corrections training standards. In many cases, junior colleges and other institutions often serve as training sites, or have state recognition as an auxiliary training program.

Important educational policy questions also become issues in any serious discussion of criminal justice education. We have already touched on some of these. One of the first of these is coping with alternative answers to the question: "Is college for everyone?" Philip E. Mosely has said that there are two great mainstays of American higher education: the liberal arts tradition and the utilitarian tradition.[68] The present writer would add an equally important third, namely the egalitarian traiditon. These three strains from the same cultural melting pot have given American higher education a unique thrust. In this regard, perhaps the answer to the question posed above should be, "Yes, college should be made available to anyone who has the ability and the desire to go!" Inexorably, the universal availability of education has been extended from the elementary grades in the nineteenth century to at least the fourteenth grade in the present time. Whether this has been a satisfactory public policy is really very difficult to judge.

A second educational policy issue can be stated quite simply: "If criminal justice practitioners benefit professionally from collegiate education, what sort of educational program should be designed?" The design of a single model curriculum or even a set of model curricula should be resisted, if the object is to impose this model upon others. The design of model curricula can be a challenging, exciting, and beneficial undertaking in its own right, but to inflict this arbitrarily on others should be strongly resisted. Fortunately, accrediting agencies and institutions would take a very dim view of such a procedure. The reasons are quite simple; we don't know enough about "what is best"! The present writer's bias is strongly in favor of a curriculum strongly based on the liberal arts and behavioral sciences. It is only a bias, however, and has to be recognized as such, for there is precious little irrefutable evidence on the subject.

Another educational policy issue revolves around reconciling the legitimate role of junior colleges in this field.

> The increasing tendency for the community colleges to be identified with higher education makes more difficult the fulfillment of its commitment to those purposes and functions not generally regarded as being related to college work....The danger lies in the possible overshadowing of those services for students not destined for transfer.[69]

The community colleges have legitimate roles not only in the provision of vocational training, but also in the general scheme of liberal education. In many states, community colleges are mandated to provide vocational training in fields desired by its community clientel group. The spurt in junior colleges involving themselves in police training and education in the post-World War II period was caused not only because of the availability of training funds, but also because of the desire of police officials for this training! All of the problems have not been solved with formal articulation agreements, as important as they are in their own right! But how else could it be in as vibrant and dynamic a field as criminal justice. The point is, the legitimate interest and goals of the community colleges must be protected;[70] it can be done without undue intrusion on the interests and aspirations of baccalaureat programs.

Other educational policy issues revolve around the matters of continuing education and non-traditional study. There seems little doubt that there will be a general, public-wide increased participation in continuing education in the future.[71] Many institutions are already preparing for this "new surge." The same applies to various endeavors under the rubric of "non-traditional study." Despite the obvious "faddism" and gimmickry which marks some current approaches to non-traditional study, probably this is an educational approach whose time has come. The Commission on Non-traditional study puts the matter into an appropriate context:

> non-traditional study is posing new problems, but!!...It is primarily accentuating long-standing issues...Thus, non-traditional study may well be the instrument that stimulates solutions to these problems, not only for new and unconventional programs but for traditional institutions as well.[72]

Neither the criminal justice practitioner field nor academic field need to panic in the face of developments in continuing education or non-traditional study. Rather than posing a threat to sacrosanct standards, these two related and often joined developments may actually improve our capabilities to deliver important and new educational services.

Finally, there is another policy issue which must be addressed, namely the view of some that educational assistance in criminal justice should be limited to persons holding positions as planners and other administrative assignments. This view would result in denying academic assistance to pre-service and to entry-level persons. This is really an elitist argument which should be strongly resisted. Again, the populist thrust of the L.E.E.P. program should be emphasized. Despite its apparent problems, in the last analysis an historical study of L.E.E.P. may reveal that it ranks second only to the G.I. bill in opening up educational opportunities for an otherwise excluded class. One of the real "beauties" of the L.E.E.P. program has been its encouragement to many persons who would not have otherwise considered going to college. Difficult to measure, one could speculate that this one endeavor has done more to raise the self-esteem of policemen than any other development. Politically, it would be difficult to express this as a manifest objective of the program; nevertheless, it has probably been the program's most important latent consequence. 73

VI. Conclusion:

The sensational rise of criminal justice education as an acceptable academic offering on nearly one thousand collegiate campuses has astounded many observers. Despite its rapid and steady growth over the past eight years, inspite of its current size in terms of student majors, few outside the field are really aware of the issues which this dynamic field of study poses for higher education. Fewer still are aware of the problems which this rapid growth poses in terms of recruitment of faculty, development of educational objectives, quality control, etc.

The arguments for specialized accreditation for criminal justice programs are compelling. For a number of years, many expressed the view that specialized accrediting was unnecessary, and that this function should be left to the six regional accrediting bodies. Some even argued that L.E.A.A., the Veteran's Administration, or State governments--or all or some of these in combination--should be looked to as the "primary" accrediting bodies in the field. For understandable reasons, the regional accrediting bodies have apparently been reluctant to "specialize" in criminal justice any more than in any other field of study.

There are still some who apparently feel that "accreditation" is an appropriate function of L.E.A.A. This is a curious view, particularly when one considers that we have a strong national tradition against direct involvement of the Federal government in accreditation matters. Why L.E.A.A. should be involved in this when all other Federal agencies have been traditionally excluded from such involvement has never been articulated. Why L.E.A.A. should be presumed to have this particular expertise has never been satisfactorily explained. Why L.E.A.A. as a Federal agency should be expected to have some special immunity while entering this real political thicket has also not been satisfactorily explained. Perhaps these suggestions for L.E.A.A.'s direct involvement were only meant to be provocative, and not meant seriously. One can imagine, however, the storm which would develop if any Federal agency--L.E.A.A. or others--had a serious intent, to take it upon themselves to make final qualitative judgments about educational programming.

This is certainly not to say that L.E.A.A. is without a voice in these matters. That agency--as a representative of the general public and as an educational "investor"--surely does have a stake, and hence a rationale for involvement. But the involvement is legitimately an indirect involvement. As with medicine, engineering, chemistry, and any other educational enterprise, the qualitative judgments should be made by persons clearly conversant with the particular subject matter field being judged. L.E.A.A. and other Federal agencies should seek these professional judgments from outside, third-party groups, rather than attempt to build this competence within their own bureaucratic ranks.

There is an obvious need for recognition of specialized accreditation for criminal justice educational programming. In keeping with the logic which underpins accreditation in this country, and in keeping with the traditions which have developed, this should be done by qualified, third-party, non-governmental groupings. Criminal justice education should not be the first specialized field of study to invite or to encourage direct Federal involvement in these matters. With other fields of study, specialized accreditation and the decisions which flow from accreditation judgments involve a variety of groupings: peer group evaluators, academic administrators, the general public, and governmental agencies. The same should be true in criminal justice.

Footnotes

1. Frank Graves Dickey, "Accreditation: Colleges," in Lee C. Deighton (Ed.) The Encyclopedia of Education (Vol. 1) MacMillan and Free Press, New York (1971) p. 49.
2. COPA: The Balance Wheel for Accreditation, The Council on Postsecondary Accreditation, Washington, D.C. (1976) p. 2, hereinafter referred to simply as COPA.
3. William K. Selden, Accrediting: A Struggle over Standards in Higher Education, Harper and Bros., New York (1960) p. 6.
4. Dickey, loc. cit.
5. William A. Kaplin, Respective Roles of Federal Government, State Governments, and Private Accrediting Agencies in the Governance of Postsecondary Education, The Council on Postsecondary Accreditation, Washington, D.C. (1975) p. 1. There is a certain irony in that particular statement of Howe's for those of us in criminal justice. One of the most hackneyed of phrases in our field is that the study of criminal justice is actually the study of a "non-system."
6. The one possible exception to this statement is the fact that the U.S. Commissioner of Education does recognize the Board of Regents of New York as the evaluator of educational programming in the State of New York.
7. Kaplin, op. cit., pp. 2ff. This is an excellent discussion from a legal perspective of the relative roles of various parts of the accrediting triad.

8. Ibid.

9. Ibid., p. 5.

10. Ibid.

11. COPA, loc. cit.

12. Jerry W. Miller, Organizational Structure of Non-governmental Postsecondary Accreditation: Relationship to Uses of Accreditation, National Commission on Accreditation, Washington, D.C. (1973) p. 9. The National Commission on Accreditation was a predecessor organization to COPA.

13. COPA, loc. cit.

14. Cited in "The National Commission on Accrediting Progress Report," North West Association of Secondary and Higher Schools Proceedings, December, 1952, quoted in Selden, op. cit., p. 6.

15. U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Bureau of Higher Education, Functions of Accreditation, National Recognized Accrediting Agencies and Associations, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. (1971) p. 2., cited in Miller, op. cit., p. 29.

16. Miller, op. cit., p. 201.

17. Ibid., p. 23., emphasis added.

18. Gordon E. Misner, "Accreditation of Criminal Justice Education Programs," The Police Chief (August, 1975) pp. 14-6, & 78, and paper by the same title presented to the Annual Meeting of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, (March, 1975) 14pp.

19. Selden, op. cit., pp. 8ff, in which he traces the history of accreditation endeavors and the power struggles which have developed over the issues of control of higher

education in this country and the rest of the western world.

20. Misner, op. cit., p. 16.

21. Selden, op. cit., p. 214.

22. Thompson S. Crockett and James D. Stinchcomb, Guidelines for Law Enforcement Education Programs in Community and Junior Colleges, American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, Washington, D.C (1968) 138pp., and Richard A. Myren, Education for Criminal Justice, A report prepared for the California Coordinating Council for Higher Education, Sacramento (1970) 118 pp. & App.

23. Misner, op. cit. p. 14.

24. Ibid.

25. Miller, op. cit., p. 2.

26. Brochure on file with author, no date, but received May 12, 1976. Emphasis added.

27. Selden, op. cit., p. 215.

28. Misner, loc. cit.

29. National Commission on Accrediting, The Past and the Future Historical Sketch and Annual Report, Washington, D.C. (April, 1965) pp. 2ff.

30. Ibid., p. 1.

31. Ibid., p. 2.

32. Selden, op. cit., p. 216.

33. Miller, loc. cit.

34. Dickey, op. cit., p. 58.

35. Kaplin, op. cit., pp. 20ff.

36. Selden, loc. cit.

37. Kaplin, op. cit., pp. 20 & 21.

38. Selden, op. cit., p. 214.

39. Miller, op. cit., p. 27.

40. Ibid., pp. 25 & 26.

41. Ibid., p. 1.

42. The fact that a member subsequently returns to employment with a criminal justice agency does not jeopardize eligibility for active membership. Among its membership, the Academy includes a number of persons whose present full-time employment is with an operating criminal justice agency, private consulting firm, etc.

43. In this regard, the Academy is probably better off than most professional academic association. Even without formal representation from the practitioner field, the Academy may very well have convinced observers that the practitioner field was represented. The majority of the members of the Academy entered the academic world after several years experience with operating agencies.

44. Misner, op. cit., p. 15.

45. Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, Accreditation Guidelines for Postsecondary Criminal Justice Education Programs, ACJS Secretariat, John Jay College of Criminal Justice, New York (March, 1976) p. i., hereinafter referred to simply as ACJS Guidelines.

46. Ibid., p. 1.

47. Ibid., p. 3.

48. Ibid., pp. 3-6.

49. Ibid., p. 5.

50. Ibid., p. 6.

51. Ibid., p. 9.

52. Ibid., p. 10.

53. *Ibid*., p. 11.

54. *Ibid*., p. 12.

55. *Ibid*.

56. Ibid., p. 13.

57. Miller, *op. cit*., p. 197, emphasis added.

58. North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *Guide for the Evaluation of Institutions of Higher Education*, Commission on Colleges and Universities, Boulder, Colo., and Evanston, Ill., (1961) p. 2.

59. Kenneth W. Thompson, "Education for What?: The Debate over Goals," in Stephen D. Kertesz (Ed.) *The Task of Universities in a Changing World*, University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame (1971) p. 25.

60. Myren, *op. cit*., pp. I-4 to 9, and the sources cited therein.

61. Reference here is made not only to the Presidents Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, but also to the Civil Disorder Commission, the Violence Commission, etc.

62. National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, *Police*, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. (1973) p. 162.

63. Ernest L. Boyer, "Rebuilding Confidence," in Dyckman W. Vermilyer (Ed.) *The Future in the Making*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco (1973) p. 38.

64. Frederick Rudolph, *The American College and University: A History*, Knopf, New York (1965) p. 161.

65. Boyer, *op. cit*., pp. 37 & 38.

66. Kaplin, *op. cit*., pp. 3 & 4.

67. Miller, op. cit., p. 15.

68. Philip E. Mosely, "The Universities and Public Policy," in Stephen D. Kertesz (Ed.) The Task of Universities in a Changing World, University of Notre Dame Press, Notre Dame (1971) p. 37.

69. Leland L. Medsker, "Community College Education," in Encyclopedia of Educational Research, (Fourth Edition) McMillan Co., New York (1969) p. 182.

70. For an interesting discussion of some of the tensions within the community college movement, see Joseph P. Cosand, "The Community College in 1980," in Alvin C. Eurich (Ed.) Campus 1980: The Shape of the Future in American Higher Education, Delacorte Press, New York (1968) pp. 134-48.

71. For a discussion of issues in continuing education, see A.A. Liveright, "Learning Never Ends: A Plan for Continuing Education," in Ibid., pp. 149-75.

72. Commission on Non-traditional Study, Diversity by Design, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco (1973) p. 116.

73. Although I know of no data which would confirm or deny this point, I think my impressions are correct. Since the inception of L.E.E.P., I would estimate that I have been involved with more than one thousand pre-service and in-service L.E.E.P. recipients. I would guess that nearly ninety per cent of these came from blue collar or unskilled origins. I also have the impression that few of them would have gone to college without L.E.E.P. assistance. Many of them first enrolled in junior colleges seeking only a "terminal" two-year degree; when they proved to themselves that they could compete on an equal footing with the general

student body, their aspiration levels changed to include completion of at least a bachelor's degree.

APPENDIX F
MANAGEMENT COURSE OFFERINGS

(from baccalaureate and graduate catalogs in criminal justice programs)

Administration Concepts for Law Enforcement

Middle Management for Law Enforcement: Practices and Problems

Special Topics in Correctional Administration

Personnel Practices in Law Enforcement/Corrections Management

Seminar in Administration of Criminal Justice

Seminar on Public Administration

Executive Behavior in the Criminal Justice Agency

Criminal Justice Administration

Organizational Change

Strategies of Innovation and Change

Promotion

Innovation in Criminal Justice Administration

Administration of Correctional Institutions

Administrative Concepts in Law Enforcement and Public Safety

Principles of Management in the Administration of Justice

Correctional Management

Police Policy Development

APPENDIX G

MANAGEMENT TRAINING COURSES OF THE
U.S. ARMY MANAGEMENT ENGINEERING TRAINING AGENCY, ROCK ISLAND, ILLINOIS

a. Advanced Management Course (40 hours)

The Role of the Executive
The Human Variable
Increasing Executive Effectiveness
Improving Organizational Effectiveness
External Impacts Upon Organizational Performance
Administrative and Police Implications
Trends and Issues on the Horizon

b. Management of Managers' Courses (80 hours)

The Functions, Skills and Abilities of the Manager
Managing other Managers and Supervisors
Achieving Organizational Effectiveness
Improving your Abilities
Managing by Objectives
The Central Function
Optimizing the Use of Scarce Resources
Special Considerations for the Public Sector
Perceiving the Environment
Developing Managers
The Future

c. Emerging Trends in Management Technology (24 hours)

Performance Effectiveness
Analysts Techniques
Environmental Trends

APPENDIX H

FEDERAL EXECUTIVE INSTITUTE OF THE U.S. CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

A. The Senior Executive Program (7 weeks)

B. The Executive Leadership and Management Program (3 weeks)

C. Short Courses (1 week) e.g.,

Organization Development and Multi-Team Building
Management by Objectives, National Needs and Priorities
Program Management and Evaluation

D. Top Management Seminar

FEI Alumni Follow on Conferences (2 1/2 days)

-- To assist graduates of Senior Executive Education Program in continued learning.

The above courses are designed overall to facilitate executive improvement in the following areas:

1. Environment of Federal Executive Effectiveness: National Needs and Goals; the Governmental System
    - A. External Environment of Administration:
        1. Social, political and governmental forces
        2. Public policies and missions
        3. Executive manpower systems
    - B. Internal Organization Environment of Administration:
        1. Administrative organization, processes, and behavior
        2. Alternative organization and management models and analysis
        3. Federal executive roles
2. Management systems and processes:
    - A. Administrative management
        1. Financial management
        2. Manpower management
        3. Property management
        4. Information management

B. Program/Project Management:

  1. Objective setting, planning, resource assembly, priorities allocation
  2. Program/project design, implementation, tracking and evaluation.

3. Personal Management Skills

  A. Self-assessment and self-renewal
  B. Leadership styles and skills
  C. Communicating skills
  D. Counseling and Coaching skills
  E. Organization change and development skills

APPENDIX I

INTERNAL REVENUE SERVICE
EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

(23 weeks)

A. Goal of Program

The goal of converting single function managers into executives having multi-functional knowledges and capabilities implies the need to develop selectees as decision-makers, problem-solvers and administrators. They should be knowledgeable about the environment in which decisions are made. The program emphasizes the management process and what executives do. Specific blocks of time are devoted to this aspect in the field and some attention given to it in the National Office.

2. Most selectees have experience in only one function. Executives with multi-functional capabilities need to have at least minimum knowledge of the work and programs in each of the principal functions of the Service and knowledge of certain broad general topics which are applicable to all executives. The program provides instruction in required functional knowledge and specified general topics. Functional knowledge about major programs and the nature of the work in Districts and Service Centers can be larened best in the field, where they can be observed in action. Broad general topics lend themselves to centralized training.

B. Components of the Course

SUBJECT MATTER	LOCATION AND METHODS
1). Orientation--6-month work through and discussion of the selectees' training needs which will be entered in his development plan.	Home office and Region and National Office--meetings, discussions with exeuctives.
2). Group Development--Finalizing of individual development plan. All development plans of all selectees are considered for group development activities.	Home office or region--attendee meets with his agency or regional chief to discuss his development plan, which sets pattern for his training needs.
3). Subject Matter--decision-making at executive level, problem solving, management process, environment in which decisions are made, what executives do.	Field Activity--Field executives act as trainees, participants accompany an executive for one week, exposure to diversity of situations. Return to national office for analysis and critique.

4).	Subject Matter--union relations, tax laws, police, long-range plans, budget process, media. EEO.	National office--total group sessions with specialists and guest speakers outside IRS. Field: officials integrate topics into management and functional matters.
5).	Subject Matter--Processing of work at Districts and Service Centers. Planning and control of work, evaluating performance.	Designated Districts, Service Centers, and Regional Offices--Determination of how many in group need training in audit, collection, taxpayer service, intelligence, processing, administration (at various levels). Attendees only participate in areas indicated in their development plans. Frames are Branch and Division Chiefs--observation and discussion on-site with supplementary reading.
6).	Subject Matter--National office objectives, plans relationships, trends, decision-making, problem-solving.	National office--Two selectees accompany a designated division director for one or two days. Process repeated for different functions. Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner meet to discuss how various efforts support current goals, factors which influence major decisions, preparing for future.
7).	Subject Matter--Broad view of Federal Executives' Role: Forces which impact on IRS: relationships with other agencies, status of women, changes in urban enviornment, organizational development, contacts with elected officials, trends in labor force, revenue sharing.	National office--Lecture-seminar sessions. Field: executives who train asked to integrate into their activities.
8).	Subject Matter--Examination of all remaining selectees' needs as indicated in development plan. May include: management training seminars, accompanying front line employees, staff meeting attendance, review of program documents and management literature, attendance at special events.	Regional office, Districts and Service Center--in home region under guidance of Regional Commissioner.

APPENDIX J

Corrections Strategic Management Program
Wharton School of Business Administration
University of Pennsylvania

Sponsored by the National Institute of Corrections

I. Unifying Concepts (Three phases)

  A. Defining problem (1 day)

    -- Outline of an adaptive learning system

  B. Exploration of strategic management concepts (7 days)

    1. Surveying environment to identify forces, predicting their impacts on the organization, and identifying those forces which pose problems for the organization.

    2. Setting criteria for decision making.

    3. Determining alternative means for meeting or countering a problem.

    4. Identifying rhe resources required for implementing each of the means, selecting and implementing a means.

    5. Evaluating means after implementation and making changes as necessary.

  C. Planning for and implementing a strategic management capability in an organization (2 days).

    1. Kinds of personnel involved and roles.

    2. Policies to be followed.

    3. Personnel organization and evaluation.

    4. Control mechanisms.

II. Organization for Program

  A. Five groups--eight each (by background--adult vs. juvenile, field vs. institutional)

  B. Selection by group of pertinent problem to be tackled by means of strategic management process:

    -- How can program mix best be achieved in a correctional system?

    -- What should be done about employee unionization trends?

    -- How can an organization best be structured to react effectively to crises?

APPENDIX J (continued)

III. Work Group Development (Suggested Approach)

Concept Area	**Group Activity**
Setting goals and objectives	a) Discuss the goals and objectives of their organizations, how they were and are set, who sets them, and conflicts between them. b) Focus in on the goals and objectives relating to their problem topics and their interrelationships. **Staff Person** - a) Public sector case study input. b) Topic discussion.
Assessing enviornmental forces and their impacts	a) Discuss environmental forces affecting their organizations, trends, how the forces are recognized and identified, and how they are acted upon. b) Focus in on the forces acting on or relating to their problem topics. **Staff Person** - a) Methodology-oriented input. b) Topic discussion.
Determining alternatives	Determine alternative solutions for their problem topics; explore how goals and objectives and environmental forces affect the alternatives. **Staff Person** - Topic discussion.
Determining resource requirements and availability.	Focus on problem topics.
Evaluation and selection	a) Discuss how to evaluate--trade-offs, value judgments, etc. b) Explore how they would go about evaluating alternative solutions for their problem topics (emphasis on process).

APPENDIX J (continued)

	Staff Person - a) Methodology-oriented input. b) Topic discussion.
Implementation and control	a) Discuss how ti implement and control—communication, feedback, fine-tuning, etc. b) Explore how they would go about implementing and controlling one or more of the alternative solutions for their problem topics (emphasis on process). Staff Person - a) Methodology-oriented input. b) Topic discussion.

APPENDIX K

CORRECTIONS MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT INSTITUTE

(Center for Criminal justice, California State University, Long Beach, 1972)

This appendix lists the principal topics covered by the Institute (17 days).

Intermanagement Awareness and Communications

Management Evaluation

Goal Setting and Problem Identification

Role Playing - Styles of Leadership

Individual Problem Identification

Role of Government in Corrections

Management Strategy: Crisis Management, Management by Objectives, Program Management

Organization Theory: Institutional Change

Organizational Development

Organization and Community Awareness

Planning and Development: An Application of Decision Making

Public Policy Making

Decision Making

Unions and Collective Bargaining

Corrections and Prisoner Relations

Finance and Budgeting

Corrections and Race Relations

Legal Implications in Corrections

Future of Corrections: Implications of Research

Source: National Institute of Corrections.

APPENDIX L

MANAGEMENT TRAINING PROGRAMS
FORD MOTOR COMPANY

Programs	Purpose	Eligibility	Length
General Management Program	To broaden participants' perspective of Company operations and improve ability to analyze and resolve complex situations from a general management viewpoint.	Selected middle and high level management personnel.	5 days
Advanced Management Seminar	To help managers and supervisors become more effective by focusing on methods and techniques designed to maximize organizational output.	Experienced and newly appointed middle level management personnel.	3 days
Supervisory Effectiveness and Interpersonal Skills Development	To improve management competence in dealing with conflict situations and to increase understanding of various management methods.	Managers and supervisors of salaried and hourly personnel.	3 and 1/2 days
Problem Analysis and Decision Making	To improve management problem-solving and decision making skills.	Apex for members of middle and high level management.	5 days
Oral Communications Skills	To provide personnel with skills development in oral presentation techniques.	Personnel required to present proposals, studies or operational reports to groups.	24 hours
Written Communications Skills	To inform management personnel on common problems in written business communications and provide specific techniques for improving the clarity and effectiveness of their business writing.	Middle and high level management personnel.	13 hours

APPENDIX M

REPRESENTIVE UNIVERSITY
EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAMS LARGELY BUSINESS ORIENTED

University and Program	Duration
Banff School of Fine Arts Executive Development Course	2 Weeks
University of California Executive Program	4 Weeks
Carnegie-Mellon University Program for Executives	9 Weeks
University of Chicago Management Development Seminar	3 Weeks
Columbia University Executive Program in Business	6 Weeks
Cornell University Executive Development Program	5 Weeks
Emory University Advanced Management Program	6 Weeks
Harvard University Advanced Management Program	13 Weeks 14 Weeks
University of Hawaii Advanced Management Program	6 Weeks
University of Houston Executive Development Program	4 Weeks
University of Illinois Executive Development Program	5 Weeks over 2 yrs on 3-2 schedule
Indiana University Executive Development Program	3 Weeks for 2 successive summers
M.I.T. Program for Senior Executives	9 Weeks
University of Michigan Executive Development Program	4 Weeks

University and Program	Duration
Northeastern University Management Development Program	6 Weeks spread over 5 months
Northwestern University Institute for Management	4 Weeks
Ohio State University Executive Development Program	2 Weeks each summer for 2 Years
Oklahoma State University Management Development Course	3 separate weeks over 2 months
Pennsylvania State University Executive Management Program	4 Weeks
University of Pittsburgh Management Program for Executives	8 Weeks
University of Southern California Summer Executive Program	4 Weeks
Stanford University Executive Program	8 Weeks
University of Texas at Austin Management Development Program	5 Weeks

APPENDIX N

MANAGEMENT TRAINING PROGRAMS IN SELECTED STATES
(AS REPORTED IN STATE PLANS)

State	Law Enforcement	
Maryland (1976)	Maryland Police Training Commission has developed a program of management and supervisory training for police agencies in the state, and trained the first group of managers and supervisors.	In 1975, the Maryland Correctional Training Commission was granted funds to train approximately 250 correctional managers and administrators in the following areas: middle management development, effective management communications, labor relations and conflict resolution, transactional analysis, and general management and mid-management techniques.
New York (1976)	During 1975, executive seminars were conducted for newly elected sheriffs and for newly appointed chiefs of police.	
Pennsylvania (1975)	An advanced police management workshop arranged through the Criminal Justice Training Center of Harrisburg Area Community College. This Criminal Justice Training Center Workshop consists of five twelve-hour Advanced Management and Supervisory programs for the chiefs of police and top level management personnel in the region.	
Oregon (1976)	Under authority of the Oregon Police Standards Act, the Police Academy gives specialized courses in addition to the mandatory training requirements. These include management and executive courses of one to five days in length.	
Massachusetts (1976)	New England Institute of Law Enforcement Management (NEILEM) is the key management training resource for police. It sponsors seven one-	In December 1973, County Correctional Academy was established at Amherst Campus of

APPENDIX N (continued)

Massachusetts (1976) (continued)	week seminars on such subjects as budgetary planning, police personnel policy, and police-community relations.	the University of Massachusetts. It consists of eight components, one of which is pre-supervisory training--a one week academy sponsored course in management techniques for potential supervisors.

APPENDIX O

This appendix includes several tables that were presented in Chapter VI of Volume II and which are particularly relevant to the finding in Chapter VI of this volume.

TABLE 0-1

INCIDENCE OF CHANGES IN DURATION OF FORMAL ENTRY-LEVEL TRAINING OFFERED BY POLICE AND SHERIFF'S AGENCIES BETWEEN 1970 AND 1975

Type of Agency	All Agencies	Length of Training Increased	Decreased	Stayed Same
Police Agencies				
Jurisdictions with 17,000 or more population	100.0	85.2	1.8	13.0
Jurisdictions with populations of fewer than 17,000	100.0	75.8	.4	23.8
Sheriffs' Agencies				
10 employees or more	100.0	85.8	.3	13.8
Fewer than 10 employees	100.0	74.0	.5	25.5

Note: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

Source: NMS Executive Surveys, 1975.

TABLE O-2

SWORN LAW ENFORCEMENT PERSONNEL ATTENDING POLICE ACADEMIES, BY SIZE OF AGENCY, 1974

Size of Agency	Number of Personnel	Personnel Who Had Attended a Police Academy	
		Number	Percent
All Law Enforcement Agencies	502,254	389,451	77.5
0-24 employees	83,005	43,497	52.4
25-149	138,073	94,118	68.2
150-399	54,788	41,229	75.3
400-999	52,453	45,267	86.3
1,000 or more	173,935	165,340	95.1

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Criminal Justice Employee Characteristics Survey, 1975.

TABLE O-3

PERCENT OF SWORN LAW ENFORCEMENT AND INCUMBENTS WHO HAVE RECEIVED ENTRY-LEVEL TRAINING BY CENSUS REGION AND STATE 1974

Census Region and State	Percent who Have Received Entry-Level Training
U.S. Total	77.5
New England	60.3
Maine	[illegible]
New Hampshire	[illegible]
Vermont	64.5
Massachusetts	57.8
Rhode Island	64.0
Connecticut	68.2
Middle Atlantic	83.1
New York	91.4
New Jersey	78.3
Pennsylvania	67.0
East North Central	74.4
Ohio	79.3
Indiana	68.1
Illinois	76.1
Michigan	82.9
Wisconsin	48.4
West North Central	72.7
Minnesota	66.6
Iowa	65.6
Missouri	84.2
North Dakota	77.8
South Dakota	53.1
Nebraska	70.1
Kansas	63.2
South Atlantic	76.4
Delaware	83.3
Maryland	87.6
District of Columbia	94.2
Virginia	80.4
West Virginia	53.6
North Carolina	52.7
South Carolina	69.5
Georgia	77.8
Florida	78.9
East South Central	66.3
Kentucky	62.9
Tennessee	71.4
Alabama	64.8
Mississippi	62.8
West South Central	78.1
Arkansas	75.1
Louisiana	69.2
Oklahoma	69.3
Texas	83.6
Mountain	81.6
Montana	80.5
Idaho	64.4
Wyoming	77.5
New Mexico	—
Colorado	84.7
Arizona	90.3
Utah	73.3
Nevada	75.2
Pacific	87.1
Washington	83.1
Oregon	83.1
California	88.3
Alaska	75.6
Hawaii	75.7

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Criminal Justice Employee Characteristics Survey, 1975.

TABLE 0-4

POLICE AND SHERIFFS' AGENCIES PROVIDING FORMAL ENTRY-LEVEL TRAINING, BY TYPE AND SIZE OF AGENCY, 1975

Type and Size of Agency	Percent of Agencies Providing Entry-Level Training
Police Agencies, Total	82.2
1-24 employees	69.2
25-74	95.1
75-399	98.1
400 or more	100.0
Sheriffs' Agencies, Total	82.6
1-24 employees	77.6
25-74	93.1
75-399	99.1
400 or more	100.0

Source: NMS Executive Surveys, 1975.

TABLE O-5

DISTRIBUTION OF HOURS OF FORMAL ENTRY-LEVEL TRAINING PROVIDED BY POLICE AND SHERIFFS' AGENCIES TO NEW RECRUITS, BY SIZE AND TYPE OF AGENCY, 1975

Length of Entry-Level Training	Police Departments					Sheriffs' Departments				
		Size of Agency					Size of Agency			
	Total (n=2723)	1-24 Employees (n=1431)	25-74 Employees (n=752)	75-399 Employees (n=432)	400 or More Employees (n=100)	Total (n=2612)	1 -24 Employees (n=1997)	25-74 Employees (n=477)	75-399 Employees (n=202)	400 or More Employees (n=36)
All Departments	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
No Training Provided	17.8	30.8	4.9	1.9	0	17.8	22.4	6.9	.9	0
1-159 hours	5.0	7.1	2.5	3.5	0	9.3	9.8	8.3	7.4	5.5
160-399 hours	43.7	43.8	51.1	39.1	9.3	61.1	60.3	68.9	56.4	22.2
400-799 hours	31.6	18.0	40.6	63.0	63.9	11.4	7.0	15.7	35.1	66.7
800 or more hours	1.9	.3	.9	2.5	26.9	.4	.4	0	0	5.5

Note: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

Source: NMS Executive Surveys, 1975.

TABLE O-6

PATROL OFFICER TASKS THAT WERE LEARNED PRIMARILY ON THE JOB AND PRIMARILY THROUGH FORMAL TRAINING: INCUMBENTS' APPRAISALS, 1975

Tasks Learned Primarily Through Formal Training

- Administers emergency first aid to injured or ailing persons.
- Uses physical force and protective equipment such as revolver, baton, handcuffs, shot gun, and tear gas when necessary to subdue resistance, prevent escape, or protect self or public.
- Informs an arrested person or charges and legal rights..
- Diagrams or sketches locations, individuals, and crime and accident scenes.
- Searches for, collects, labels, and packages physical evidence found at crime and accident.

Tasks Learned Primarily on the Job

- Familiarizes self with assigned patrol area and its citizens, business, and crime problems, and identifies potential trouble spots.
- Drives vehicle or walks in assigned patrol area and watches for unusual or suspicious events and irregularities.
- Responds to calls for service or help and takes action to alleviate or control situation.
- Interviews suspects, complainants, witnesses, and victims of crime to gain information on current unresolved cases.
- Enters and conducts proper search of premises specified in warrant or following "hot pursuit" of suspect or fugitive.
- Established and carries out surveillance of persons and things.
- Directs traffic at intersections, accidents, or points of congestion and issues traffic citations or warning notices to motorists and pedestrians.
- Observes speech, odor, and movements of stopped motorists or pedestrians to determine degree of drug or alcohol intoxication.

Tasks Learned Primarily On the Job — Continued

- Searches for, identifies, and recovers lost or stolen property.
- Assists people with problems or refers them to public service agencies.
- Enforces law situationally, exercising judgment and discretion as to the most effective means for controlling or resolving problems.
- Pursues fleeing suspects or fugitive by vehicle or on foot.
- Arrests, searches, and secures suspects and fugitives.
- Participates in booking arrested persons.
- Evaluates circumstances and releases arrested persons on a citation rather than taking into custody when warranted.
- Recruits informants on criminal activity and solicits information from them.
- Acquires and updates information on crime and other police matters by reading station log and reports, exchanging information with fellow officers and other knowledgeable persons, chatting with citizens, and soliciting guidance from superiors.
- Reports periodic and daily activities verbally and in writing to supervisor.
- Operates voice radio equipment to receive and give information.
- Records field actions and observations in notebook and transposes information into formal report of crimes, accidents, or other activities and action taken.
- Testifies at judicial proceedings.
- Talks with juveniles and families of juveniles to build respect for law and order, advise on acceptable behavior, and reduce crime activity.
- Transports or guards suspects, prisoners, and other detained persons to prevent escape or injury.

Source: [illegible] Job Analysis Interviews, 1975.

TABLE O-7

MOST PROMINENT KNOWLEDGE AND SKILL DEFICIENCIES REMAINING AFTER PATROL OFFICER RECRUIT TRAINING, 1975

- Interviewing and Eliciting Information
- Investigation of Specific Crimes: e.g., Arson, Burglary, Rape, Homicide
- Information Sources and Informants
- Local Jurisdiction's Laws and Ordinances
- Courtroom Procedures, Demeanor, and Presentation of Testimony
- Collecting, Recording, Analyzing Information
- Crisis Intervention, Dispute Settlement
- Laws of Evidence
- Preparation of Clear, Concise Reports
- Juvenile Justice System: Laws and Procedures
- Hot Pursuit and Defensive Driving
- Use of Physical Force, Lethal and Nonlethal Weapons

Source: NMS Field Job Analysis, 1975.

TABLE O-8

PERCENTAGE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES PROVIDING REGULAR IN-SERVICE TRAINING, BY TYPE AND SIZE OF AGENCY, 1975

Type and Size of Agency	Percentage Providing In-Service Training
Police Agencies, Total	69.2
1-74 personnel	63.4
75-399 personnel	88.0
400 or more personnel	96.1
Sheriffs' Agencies, Total	67.8
1-74 personnel	63.0
75-399 personnel	86.1
400 or more personnel	94.3

Source: NMS Executive Surveys, 1975.

TABLE O-9

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTIONS OF POLICE AGENCIES BY THE PROPORTION OF OFFICERS ATTENDING FORMAL IN-SERVICE TRAINING WITHIN THE PREVIOUS YEAR, 1975

Percent of Personnel Receiving In-Service Training	Agencies with Fewer than 150 Employees[a]	Agencies with Between 150 & 399 Employees	Agencies with 400 or more Employees
All Responding Agencies	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 25	86.2	82.9	91.7
25-49	11.7	8.1	2.4
50-74	1.9	5.7	1.2
75-100	0.2	3.2	4.8

[a] In jurisdictions of 17,000 or more residents. Only agencies that offer in-service training are included.

Source: NMS Executive Surveys, 1975.

TABLE O-10

TASKS PERFORMED BY LINE SUPERVISORY PERSONNEL THAT ARE NOT NORMALLY PERFORMED BY PATROL OFFICERS, 1975

- Discusses charge and circumstances of arrest with arresting officer to insure that they are in accord with law and departmental policy.

- Evaluates circumstances and releases arrested person on a citation rather than taking into custody, when warranted.

- Conceives, plans, and recommends improvements, innovations, and changes in department policies objectives and procedures for coping with crime or providing public service.

- Responds to scene of major occurrences, provides advice, and assumes leadership as needed.

- Receives, reviews, revises, and forwards reports and files on daily activities (crime, accidents, and other incidents).

- Prepares, reviews, approves, and forwards summary and statistical reports on crime and police activity.

- Inspects police personnel and equipment for conformity to regulations.

- Assigns police and related personnel to duty.

- Monitors and supervises police operations and personnel.

- Investigates reports and takes action on complaints against police personnel or unit operations.

- Plans, organizes, and staffs unit operations utilizing available resources.

- Performs personnel and administrative actions such as hearing grievances, evaluating job performance, taking disciplinary action, recommending awards, approving promotions, approving directives, and counseling subordinate personnel.

Source: NMS Job Analysis, 1975.

TABLE O-11

PERCENTAGES OF POLICE AND SHERIFFS' AGENCIES OFFERING SUPERVISORY TRANING, BY SIZE OF AGENCY, 1975

Size and Type of Agency	Percent of Agencies Offering Supervisory Training
Police Agencies, Total	36.8
Jurisdictions of less than 17,000	23.1
Jurisdictions of more than 17,000 population, total	48.8
Fewer than 150 employees	47.5
150-499 employees	48.5
500 or more employees	63.0
Sheriffs' Agencies, Total	29.0
Fewer than 10 employees	16.3
10 or more employees	39.7

Source: NMS Executive Surveys, 1975.

TABLE O-12

MOST PROMINENT KNOWLEDGE AND SKILL DEFICIENCIES OF NEWLY APPOINTED SUPERVISORS: INCUMBENTS' APPRAISALS, 1975

Patrol Supervisors

- Planning and Decision Making
- Personnel Administration
- Issues Requiring Legal Interpretation
- Motivation, Morale, and Police Productivity
- Crowd and Riot Control

Investigative-Services Supervisors

- Preparation and Execution/Issuance/Processing of a Warrant or Subpoena
- Investigation of Specific Crimes: e.g., Arson, Burglary, Rape, Homicide
- Leadership and Supervision
- Information Sources and Informants
- Crime Strike/Task Forces
- Criminalistics/Forensic Science
- Visual and Audio Surveillance
- Release of Information
- Protection/Analysis of Crime Scene

Source: NMS Job Analysis, 1975.

TABLE O-13

PETERSON COMMISSION RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING THE PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF TIME AMONG COURSE TOPICS COMPARED WITH THE ACTUAL DISTRIBUTION OF TIME IN LAW ENFORCEMENT ACADEMIES IN 1975

Training Topic	Peterson Commission Recommendations	Distribution of Coursework in Surveyed Academies [a]
All Topics	100	100
1. Patrol and Investigation Procedures	33	39
2. Human Values and Problems	22	7
3. Police Proficiency	18	28
4. Law	10	14
5. Administration	9	6
6. Introduction to the Criminal Justice System	8	6

[a] The categories in the NASDLET Survey that correspond to those that the Peterson Commission uses are: (1) traffic, criminal procedures, juvenile detention; (2) community and human values and problems; (3) weapons; (4) legal subjects; (5) agency policies and procedures; (6) orientation and introduction to criminal justice system.

Source: National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, Police (1973), p. 394; NASDLET Survey of Law Enforcement Academies 1975.

APPENDIX P

GRADUATE TRAINEESHIP PROGRAMS
IN
REHABILITATION COUNSELING

Region 1

Connecticut	University of Connecticut
Maine	No Programs
Massachusetts	Assumption College
	Boston University
	Springfield College
New Hampshire	No Programs
Vermont	No Programs

Region 2

New Jersey	Seton Hall University
New York	State University of New York at Albany
	State University of New York at Buffalo
	Columbia University Teachers College
	Hofstra University
	Hunter College
	Syracuse University
	New York University School of Education
Puerto Rico	University of Puerto Rico
Virgin Islands	No Programs

Region 3

Delaware	No Programs

(Region 3 Continued)

District of Columbia	George Washington University
Maryland	University of Maryland
	Coppin State College
Pennsylvania	Pennsylvania State University
	Temple University
	University of Pittsburgh
	University of Scranton
	Lincoln University
Virginia	Virginia Commonwealth University
West Virginia	West Virginia University

Region 4

Alabama	University of Alabama
	Auburn University
Florida	Florida State University
	University of Florida
Georgia	Georgia State University
	University of Georgia
Kentucky	University of Kentucky
Mississippi	Mississippi State University
North Carolina	East Carolina University
	University of North Carolina
South Carolina	University of South Carolina
	University of South Carolina
Tennessee	Memphis State University
	University of Tennessee

Region 5

Illinois	Illinois Institute of Technology
	Southern Illinois University
	University of Illinois
Indiana	No Programs
Michigan	Michigan State University
	Wayne State University
Minnesota	University of Minnesota
	Mankato State College
	St. Cloud State College
Ohio	Bowling Green State University
	Kent State University
	University of Cincinnati
	Wright State University
Wisconsin	University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
	University of Wisconsin

Region 6

Arkansas	Arkansas State University
Louisiana	University of Southwestern Louisiana
	Northwestern State University
New Mexico	University of New Mexico
Oklahoma	Oklahoma State University
Texas	Texas Tech University
	UT Health Science Center
	University of Texas at Austin

Region 7

Iowa	University of Iowa
Kansas	Kansas State Teachers College
Missouri	University of Missouri-Columbia
Nebraska	University of Nebraska at Lincoln

Region 8

Colorado	University of Northern Colorado
Montana	Eastern Montana College
North Dakota	No Programs
South Dakota	No Programs
Utah	University of Utah
Wyoming	No Programs

Region 9

Arizona	University of Arizona
California	California State University- Sacramento
	California State University of San Francisco
	University of Southern California
	California State University-Los Angeles
	San Diego State University
	California State University-Fresno
Hawaii	University of Hawaii
Nevada	No Programs
Guam	No Programs

Region 10

Alaska	No Programs
Idaho	No Programs

(Region 10 Continued)

Oregon	University of Oregon
Washington	University of Washington

Source: National Rehabilitation Counseling Association, Washington, D.C. Regions refer to the Association's classifications.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences. *Accreditation Guidelines for Post-Secondary Criminal Justice Education Programs*. New York: John Jay College of Criminal Justice, ACJS Secretariat, 1976.

"Advisor Judge Orientation Program for New Judges' Guide for Advisor Judges." Processed. Minnesota Office of Continuing Education for State Court Personnel, 1975.

Allen, George M. "The Police Manager's Role in Training." *The Police Chief* 43 (August 1976): 36-39.

American Bar Association, Correctional Economics Center. *Resource Needs of Correctional Administrators*. Washington, 1974.

ABA, Section on Legal Education. *Law Schools and Bar Admission Requirements: A Review of Legal Education in the United States, Fall 1975*. Washington, 1976.

__________. *Rules of Procedure for Approval of Law Schools by the American Bar Association*. Chicago, 1975.

ABA, Special Committee on Lay Assistants for Lawyers. *Training for Legal Assistants, San Francisco Pilot Project Report*. Preliminary Draft. Chicago, 1971.

ABA, Special Committee on Legal Assistants. *Committee on Legal Assistants*. Chicago, 1975.

American Judicature Society. *Court Administrators*. Report No. 17. Chicago, 1971.

Analysis of the Training Needs of Cuyahoga County, Ohio: County Support Personnel. Court Management Project, 1976.

Anderson, Arvid. "The Structure of Public Service Bargaining." In: *Public Workers and Public Unions*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973.

Andrews, Genevie. *Police Unionization and Bargaining: Selected References Since 1965*. Evanston: Northwestern University, Traffic Institute, 1973.

Annual Prosecutor's Workshop 1975. Criminal Law and Practice Course Handbook Series No. 177. New York: Practicing Law Institute, 1975.

Arcaya, Jose. "The Multiple Realities Inherent in Probation Counseling." *Federal Probation* 37 (December 1973): 58-62.

Arthur, Lindsay G., and Gauger, William A. *Disposition Hearings: The Heartbeat of the Juvenile Court*. Reno: National Council of Juvenile Court Judges, 1974.

Ash, Robert; Lomax, Joan C.; and Schonfeld, Norton R. *A Two-Year Model Curriculum in Criminal Justice-Prosecution Management Option*. Chicago: National Center for Prosecution Management, 1974.

Astin, Alexander W. "The Measured Effects of Higher Education." *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 404 (November 1972): 1-20.

Austin, Thomas Lee, and Petoskey, Joan Marie. "A Longitudinal Study of the Educational Trends of Criminal Justice Graduates of Michigan State University." M.S. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1974.

"Bargaining in Correctional Institutions: Restructuring the Relation Between the Inmate and the Prison Authority." *The Yale Law Journal* 81 (1972): 726-756.

Basic Course in Applied Police Science: A 385 Hour Course. Arlington: The North Central Texas Council of Governments, 1975.

Bass, Bernard H., and Vaughan, James A. *Training in Industry: The Management of Learning*: Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1966.

Beer, Michael, and Ruh, Robert A. "Employee Growth Through Performance Management." *Harvard Business Review* 54 (July-August 1976): 59-66.

Behavioral Objectives for POST Basic Courses. Sacramento: California Commission on Peace Officers Standards and Training, 1975.

"The Benefits of Forming a Police/University Consortium." Processed. Sponsored by the Cincinnati Police Division, the Police Foundation and the University of Cincinnati, March 19 and 20, 1975.

Bergsmann, Ilene. *Police Unions*. Management Information Service Report. Washington: International City Management Association, March 1976.

Berney, Donald W. "Law and Order Politics: A History and Role Analysis of Police Officer Organizations." Ph.D. dissertation, University of Washington, 1971.

Bernstein, Samuel. "Can Probation Work?" Juvenile Justice 26 (August 1975): 20-23.

Berwitt, George J. "The Big Shake-up in Management Development." Dun's Review (March 1973): 79-81.

Bets, George J., and Marsh, Robert. "Problems in Development of an Undergraduate Criminal Justice Curriculum." Federal Probation 38 (December 1974): 34-40.

Black, Charles L. "Some Notes on Law Schools in the Present Day." The Yale Law Journal 79 (1970): 505-511.

Boehm, George A. W. "Shaping Decisions with Systems Analysis." Harvard Business Review 54 (October 1976): 91-99.

Boolsen, Frank M., ed. Directory of Universities and College Criminology Programs. Society for the Advancement of Criminology, 1950.

Bottomley, A. Keith. Decision in the Penal Process. South Hackensack: Fred B. Rothman and Company, 1973.

"Boulder County Sheriff's Academy. Curriculum." Processed. Boulder, no date.

Bowers, Mollie H. "Police Administrators and the Labor Relations Process." The Police Chief 42 (January 1975): 52, 53-55.

Brandstatter, Arthur F., and Hoover, Larry T. "Systematic Criminal Justice Education." Journal of Criminal Justice 4 (Spring 1976): 47-56.

Brautigam, Richard K. "Criminal Justice Decision-Making: An Exploratory Empirical Study." Howard Journal of Penology and Crime Prevention 14 (January 1974): 53-77.

Brennan, Bruce E. "A Master Plan for Higher Education for Criminal Justice Personnel." Processed. Richmond: Virginia Division of Justice and Crime Prevention, 1974.

Bruns, Gilbert H.; Sherman, I. Gayle; and Moreen, John C. An Assessment of Criminal Justice Personnel in Arizona Regarding Higher Education. Tempe: Arizona State University, Center of Criminal Justice, 1974.

Burger, Warren. "Special Skills of Advocacy: Are Specialized Training and Certification of Advocates Essential to our System of Justice?" Fordham Law Review 42 (1973).

Burpo, John. *Labor Relations Guidelies for the Police Executive*. Evanston: Northwestern University, Traffic Institute, 1976.

__________. *The Police Labor Movement*. Springfield: Charles C. Thomas Publisher, 1972.

Cannoy, Martin, and Marenback, Dieter. "The Return to Schooling in the U.S.: 1939-69." *The Journal of Human Resources* (Summer 1975): 312-331.

Carrington, Paul D., ed. "Training for the Public Profession of Law: 1971." In: *Proceedings of the Association of American Law Schools*, 1971, Part I, Section II. Washington: Association of American Law Schools, 1972.

Carter, Robert M., and Nelson, E. K. "The Law Enforcement Education Program--One University's Experience." *Journal of Police Science and Administration* 1 (December 1973): 491-494.

Cascio, Wayne F., and Real, Leslie J. "Educational Standards for Police Officer Personnel." *The Police Chief* 43 (August 1976): 54-55.

Catlin, Dennis W., and Nafisi, Terry. "Higher Education for the Court Administration Function." Processed. Michigan Supreme Court, 1975.

Chang, Dae H., and Zastrow, Charles H. "Police Evaluative Perceptions of Themselves, The General Public and Selected Occupational Groups." *Journal of Criminal Justice* 4 (Spring 1976): 17-28.

Christian, Kenneth D. "Preliminary Bibliography: The Effects of Higher Education on Criminal Justice Personnel." Processed. East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1974.

Comprehensive Evaluations: Washington Criminal Justice Education and Training Center. Zaring Corporation, 1972.

Connolly, Joseph J. "Law School Programs to Meet Criminal Law Manpower Needs." Paper presented at Airlie House Conference on Manpower Needs of Criminal Justice, 1966. Processed.

"Contemporary Issues in Higher Education Programs in Corrections: A Report from the Workshop for Correctional Educators in Colleges and Universities in Rensselaerville, New York. Washington: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1973.

COPA: The Balance Wheel for Accreditation. Washington: The Council on Postsecondary Accreditation, 1976.

Correctional Officer Training Guide. College Park: American Correctional Association, no date.

Correctional Education: A Forgotten Human Service. Correctional Education Project, Education Commission of the States, 1976.

Cosand, Joseph P. "The Community College in 1980." In: *Campus 1980: The Shape of the Future in American Higher Education*, edited by Alvin C. Eurich. New York: Delacorte Press, 1968.

County Attorneys' Basic School Manual. Phase I. St. Paul: Minnesota County Attorneys' Council, 1975.

"Court Improvement Training Package." Final Report. Processed. Reno: American Bar Association and National College of State Judiciary, 1975.

Criminal Justice Higher Education Programs in Maryland. New York: Arthur D. Little, Inc., 1973.

Criminal Justice Training Facilities: Capital and Operating Costs of Alternative Programs. Volume I, Part 2--Projections Through 1985. Seattle: Mathematical Sciences Northwest, Inc., 1973.

Criminal Law Practice Materials. Criminal Defense Lawyers' Project. Austin: State Bar of Texas, 1975.

Crockett, Thompson S., and Stinchcomb, James D. *Guidelines for Law Enforcement Education Programs in Community and Junior Colleges*. Washington: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1968.

Culver, John H. "Policing the Police: Problems and Perspectives." *Journal of Police Science and Administration* 3 (June 1975): 125-135.

D'Arcy, Paul F. "Assessment Center Program Helps to Test Managerial Competence." *The Police Chief* 41 (December 1974): 52, 53+.

Defense Attorney Training Seminars. Held 1974 and 1975 in Washington, D.C. sponsored by Public Defender Service of the District of Columbia.

Del Duca, Louis F. "Continuing Evaluation of Law School Curricula -- An Initial Survey." *Journal of Legal Education* 20 (1968): 309-333.

deShane, Michael; and Griswold, David B. "Educational Programs, Criminal Justice Manpower Needs, and Directions in Education: Focus on Region X." Part I: Criminal Justice Manpower Needs; Part II: Criminal Justice Education Needs." Processed. Portland: Portland State University, National Criminal Justice Education Development Project, 1975.

Development and Standardization of a Two-Year Police Science Curriculum in Iowa. Iowa City: University of Iowa, Bureau of Police Science, 1975.

Development of a Master Plan to Meet Criminal Justice Personnel Training Needs for the State of Georgia. Kansas City: Midwest Research Institute, 1974.

Dickey, Frank Graves. "Accreditation: Colleges." In: The Encyclopedia of Education, Volume I, edited by Lee C. Deighton. New York: MacMillan and The Free Press, 1971.

Dittman, Frank W. "The Dilemma of Probation Training." Probation and Parole (Journal of New York State Probation and Parole Officers Association). Issue Number 3 (Summer 1971): 27-33.

Drucker, Peter. Management. New York: Harper and Company, 1974.

Duffee, David. Correctional Policy and Prison Organization. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1975.

____________. "Correctional Policy, Managerial Style, and Their Relationship to the Organizational Climate in a Minimum Security Prison." Ann Arbor: University Microfilms, 1974.

Dugger, Ronnie. "The Community College Comes of Age." Change 8 (February 1976): 32-37.

Dulin, Stanley L. "A Study of Statewide Educational Incentive Pay Programs." Journal of Police Science and Administration 4 (June 1976): 223-235.

Eastman, Esther M. Police Education in American Colleges and Universities: A Search for Excellence. Final Report. Kent: Kent State University, 1972.

Eastman, George D., and McCain, James A. "Police Managers and Their Perceptions of Higher Education." *Journal of Criminal Justice* 1 (1973): 113-124.

Economic Crime: A Prosecutor's Handbook. Washington: National District Attorneys Association, no date.

"Education and Work Load Standards: Barriers to Change in Corrections." In: *Perspectives on Correctional Manpower and Training*. Washington: Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1970.

Engelberg, Steven L., and Grove, Daniel G. "Interdisciplinary Criminal Justice Management Training Program." First Evaluation. Processed. Washington: Georgetown University Law Center, 1974.

Evaluation Committee. "Evaluation Report." Processed. Houston: National College of District Attorneys, 1975.

Evaluation of Staff Training Programs. Prepared for Wisconsin Department of Health and Social Services. Chicago: John Howard Association, 1975.

Evaluation of the University of Mississippi School of Law Clinical and Criminal Justice Assistance Programs. Washington: The American University, 1974.

"Evaluation Report of the Court Improvement Training Package." Processed. Denver: National Center for State Courts, 1973.

Executive Digest of the Consolidated JFMIP/LEAA/LEEP Report Concerning the Financial Management and Other Problems of Law Enforcement Education Program. Washington: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1974.

Executive Prosecutor Course. Chicago: National College of District Attorneys, 1975.

Facility and Program Needs for a Nebraska Criminal Justice Training Academy. Grand Island: Nebraska Law Enforcement Training Center, 1974.

Fairbanks, Philip M. "The American Academy of Judicial Education: A National Program for Courts of First Jurisdiction." *Judicature* 54 (1971): 226-230.

Farris, Edward A. "A History of Criminal Justice Education." In: *Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences--Report of the Standards Committee, Volume I*, edited by William J. Mathias. Atlanta: Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, 1972.

"The FBI's National Executive Institute: Educating Law Enforcement's Top Level Managers." *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin* 45 (September 1976): 3-8.

Feldstein, Donald. *Undergraduate Social Work Education: Today and Tomorrow.* New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1972.

Finnigan, James C. "A Study of Relationships Between College Education and Police Performance in Baltimore, Maryland." *The Police Chief* 43 (August 1976): 60-62.

Fosen, Robert H. "Commission on Accreditation for Corrections..." *American Journal of Corrections* 38 (January-February 1976): 16-17.

Foster, James Price. "A Descriptive Analysis of Crime-Related Programs in Higher Education." Ph.D. dissertation, Florida State University, 1974.

Fox, Vernon. *Handbook for Volunteers in Juvenile Court*. Reno: National Council on Juvenile Court Justice, 1973.

Fraley, Philip K. "Correctional Officer Validation Study." Processed. Sacramento: California State Personnel Board, 1975.

Frank, Jerome. "A Plea for Lawyer Schools." *Yale Law Journal* 56 (1947):

____________. "What Courts Do in Fact." *Illinois Law Review* 26 (1932).

Franklin, Barbara A. *Pretrial Training Packages: A Brief Description*. Denver: National Center for State Courts, 1975.

Freeman, Richard B. "Overinvestment in College Training?" *The Journal of Human Resources* 10 (Summer 1975): 287-311.

Friedman, Harvey G. "Discretionary Criminal Justice in Law School Education and Legal Scholarship." *Denver Law Journal* 50 (1974): 463-477.

"Front-End Analysis." *Training* (March 1975): 27-29; 50-54.

Garff, Regnal W. *Handbook for New Juvenile Court Judges*. Reno: National Council of Juvenile Court Judges, 1973.

Gavin, James, and Hamilton, John W. "Selecting Police Using Assessment Center Methodology." *Journal of Police Science and Administration* 5 (June 1975): 166-176.

Geary, David Patrick. "College Educated Cops--Three Years Later." *The Police Chief* 37 (August 1970): 59-62.

____________________. "Experience with College Educated Officers." *Journal of Law Enforcement Education and Training* 1 (September 1971): 8-11.

Gee, E. Gordon, and Jackson, Donald W. *Following the Leader? The Unexamined Consensus in Law School Curricula*. New York: Mailen Press, Inc., 1975.

Gelber, Seymour. *Individualized Orientation Program for New Prosecutors*. Chicago: National District Attorneys Association, 1973.

General Accounting Office. *Problems in Administering Programs to Improve Law Enforcement Education*. (Law Enforcement Assistance Administration). Washington, June 11, 1975.

Germann, A. C. "Law Enforcement Education and Training Programs in the United States." *The Police Chief* 24 (October 1957): 22-28.

Gibson, John W.; Hagedorn, John P.; and Crosby, Roger F. "Regionalized Personnel Development for Criminal Justice Employees." *Journal of Criminal Justice* 2 (Fall 1974): 243-248.

Gilmore, Horace W., and Ball, Vaughn C. *Evidence*. Reno: National College of State Judiciary, 1975.

Golden, Deborah; Pins, Alfred; and Jones, Wyatt. *Students in Schools of Social Work: A Study of Characteristics and Factors Affecting Career Choice and Practice Concentration*. Washington: Council on Social Work Education, 1972.

Goldstein, Herman. "Upgrading the Police." Paper presented at the meeting of the Police Foundation Executive Forum on Upgrading the Police, Washington, D.C., April 13, 1976. Processed.

Gonzales, Steven. *Spanish Language Training for Policemen: Lessons Learned During a First Attempt*. Albuquerque: The University of New Mexico, 1974.

Gourley, A. Douglas. "Higher Education for Police Personnel." *Law and Order* 20 (February 1972): 34-37.

Grayson, C. Jackson, Jr. "Management Science and Business Practice." Harvard Business Review 51 (July-August 1973): 41-48.

Greenwood, Peter W., and Wildhorn, Sorrell. "An Evaluation of the National Center for Prosecution Management: 1971-1973." Processed. Santa Monica: The Rand Corporation, 1974.

Greytak, David. "The Budgetary Effects of Inflation: A Case Study of Expenditures for Police Service." Journal of Police Science and Administration 3 (December 1975): 482-485.

Griswold, David. "LEEP: An Analysis of Secondary Data." Processed. Portland State University, 1974.

Gross, Solomon. "Higher Education and Police: IS There a Need for a Closer Look?" Journal of Police Science and Administration 1 (December 1973): 477-483.

A Guide to Educational Programs in Noncollegiate Organizations. Washington: American Council on Education, and The University of the State of New York, 1976.

Guide to Operating an Off-Campus College Work-Study Program. Washington: National Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators and the Project for Service Learning of the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, 1975.

Harno, A. "American Legal Education." American Bar Association Journal 46 (1960): 85-851.

Harris, Richard N. The Police Academy: A Psycho-Structural Analysis. Medford: Tufts University, 1970.

________________. Police Academy: An Inside View. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1973.

Heginbotham, Stanley J.; Friedman, Jill A.; and Kaplan, Cynthia S. "National Training Seminars for Appellate Judges: A Preliminary Assessment of Impact." Processed. Denver: National Center for State Courts, 1976.

Heginbotham, Stanley J., and Friedman, Jill A. "Training for Court Executives: A Preliminary Assessment of an Institute of a Court Management Program." Processed. Denver: National Center for State Courts, 1976.

Heim, John, and Lewis, Perl. Educational Production Functions: Implications for Educational Manpower Police. Ithaca: New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University, 1974.

Henderson, Richard. "The Correction Officer and the Education Program." American Journal of Corrections (May-June 1970).

Hilligan, Thomas J. "Public Employee Organizations: Past Developments and Present Problems." Labor Law Journal (May 1973): 298.

Hoffman, Dennis E.; Snell, Joel C.; and Webb, Vincent J. "Insiders and Outsiders in Criminal Justice Education." Journal of Criminal Justice 4 (September 1976): 57-62.

Hoover, Larry T. "Evaluating the Impact of Education upon Police Performance." Paper presented at the meeting of the Academy of Criminal Justice Annual Meeting in Dallas, Texas, March 24-26, 1976. Processed.

______________. Police Educational Characteristics and Curricula. Washington: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1975.

______________. "Police Recruit Educational Background Analysis." Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1974.

Huff, Clarence R. "Unionization Behind the Walls: An Analytic Study of the Ohio Prisoner's Labor Movement." Ph.D. dissertation, Ohio State University, 1974.

Imlay, Carl H., and Reid, Elsie L. "The Probation Officer, Sentencing, and the Winds of Change." Federal Probation 39 (December 1975): 9-17.

Institute for Court Management. Court Executive Development Program and Regional Court Management Workshop for a Career in the Courts, 1974.

Johnson, Jennifer, and Carr, Bradley G. *A Survey of Legislation, Regulations and Policies Supportive of Correctional Officer Education*. American Bar Association, Committee on Correctional Facilities and Services, 1973.

Johnson, Knowlton W.; Bergman, Ken; and Mendoza, Bob. *New Directions in Criminal Justice Education: A Program Designed to Prepare College Students to Initiate Planning Change in Criminal Justice*. College Park: University of Maryland, 1974.

Jorgensen, James D., and Seheir, Ivan H. *Volunteer Training for Courts and Corrections*. Metuchen: The Scarecrow Press, 1973.

"Judicial Education in Alabama." Processed. Alabama: State Court Administrators Office, 1975.

Juris, Hervey A., and Peter Feuville. *The Impact of Police Unions: Summary Report*. Washington: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1973.

Juris, Hervey A., and Feuville, Peter. *Police Unionism*. Lexington: Lexington - D.C. Heath, 1975.

Juvenile Court Institutes: A Training Project in Juvenile Delinquency. Paramus: National Council on Crime and Delinquency Training Center, 1971.

Kaplin, William A. *Respective Roles of Federal Government, State Governments, and Private Accrediting Agencies in the Governance of Post-Secondary Education*. Washington: The Council on Postsecondary Accreditation, 1975.

Katnin, Susan Ellen. "The Effects on Women Inmates of Facilitation Training Provided Correctional Officers." *Criminal Justice and Behavior* 1 (1974): 5-12.

Kearney, William J., and Martin, Desmond D. "The Assessment Center: A Tool for Promotional Decisions." *The Police Chief* 42 (January 1975)

Kelso, Charles D. *The AALS Study of Part-Time Legal Education. Final Report*. Washington: Association of American Law Schools, 1972.

________________. "In the Shadow of the Bar Examiner, Can True Lawyering be Taught?" *Learning and the Law* 2 (1976): 39.

Killinger, George C., and Kencher, Allen A. *Curriculcum Development for Doctoral Programs in Criminal Justice I and II*. Sam Houston State University, Institute of Contemporary Corrections and the Behavioral Sciences, 1974.

King, Alan D. "Law Enforcement Education, Consolidation, and Research: Some Comments." *The Police Chief* 43 (August 1976): 74-75.

Klyman, Fred I., and Karman, Thomas A. "Perspective for Graduate-Level Education in Criminal Justice." *Crime and Delinquency* 20 (October 1974): 398-404.

Knowles, Lyle, and Timko, John. "Evaluating Educational Programs in Criminal Justice: A Technique for Obtaining Responses from Participants." *Journal of Police Science and Administration* 2 (January 1974): 107-113.

Kobetz, Richard W. *Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice Education Directory 1975-76*. Gaithersburg: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1975.

Korim, Andrew S. *Improving Corrections Personnel Through Community Colleges*. Washington: American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, and the American Bar Association, 1973.

Korwitz, Gerald T. *et al*. *Evaluation of an Introduction to Correctional Techniques*. A Program of the Bureau of Prisons, Staff Training Centers. Norman: University of Oklahoma College of Education, 1973.

Kuldar, Von D. "Criminal Justice Education: Myths or Reality." *The Police Chief* 42 (August 1975): 18-19.

Kuykendall, Jack L., and Hernandez, Armand P. "A Curriculum Development Model: Quality Control Programming in Justice Education." *The Police Chief* 42 (August 1975): 20-25.

Latta, Robert M., and Cocks, Jack. "Management Strategies for Federal Probation Officers in Metropolitan Areas." *Federal Probation* 39 (September 1975): 10-17.

Law Enforcement Technology: A Suggested Two-Year Post High School Curriculum. U.S. Office of Education, 1975.

Law Enforcement Training in the United States. A Survey of State Law Enforcement Training Commissions. East Lansing: Michigan Law Enforcement Officers' Training Council, 1972.

Legal Education in a Changing World: Report of the Committee on Legal Education in the Developing Countries. New York: International Legal Center, 1975.

"Legal Theory and Legal Education." The Yale Law Journal 79 (1970: 1153-1178.

Legislating for Correctional Line Officer Education and Training. Washington: American Association of Community and Junior Colleges and the American Bar Association, 1973.

Lejins, Peter P. Introducing a Law Enforcement Curriculum at a State University. Washington: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1970.

Levinson, Harry. "Appraisal of What Performance?" Harvard Business Review 54 (July-August 1976): 30-32.

Levitt, Theodore. "Management and the 'Post-Industrial' Society." The Public Interest 44 (Summer 1976): 69-103.

Livingston, J. Sterling. "Myth of the Well-Educated Manager." Harvard Business Review 49 (January-February 1971): 79-89.

Lewis, Dorothy Otnow, and Lewis, Melvin. "A Teaching Program in a Juvenile Court Setting." Juvenile Justice 26 (February 1975): 9-15.

Loewenberg, Frank M. Time and Quality in Graduate Social Work Education. Report of the Special Committee to Study the Length of Graduate Social Work Education. New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1972.

Logan, John F. "Law Enforcement Education and the Community College." The Police Chief 42 (August 1975): 261-31.

Lusterman, Seymour. "Education for Work: Business Views and Company Programs." The Conference Board Record 13 (May 1976): 39-46.

Lynch, Gerald W. "Criminal Justice Higher Education: Some Perspectives." The Police Chief 43 (August 1976): 63-65.

Management and Executive Development in Industry, Universities, and the Federal Government. Rock Island: U.S. Army Management Education Training Agency, 1974.

Management by Objectives Manual. Montgomery County Department of Police (Maryland), 1976.

Managing for Effective Discipline. Final Report and Executive Summary. Gaithersburg: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1976.

"Maximizing Potential Manpower Resources." In: *Perspectives on Correctional Manpower and Training*. Washington: Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1970.

McArthur, Virginia. "Inmate Grievance Mechanisms: A Survey of 209 American Prisons." *Federal Probation* 38 (December 1974): 41-46.

McConkie, Mark L. *Management by Objectives: A Corrections Perspective*. Washington: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1976.

McDonough, J. Norman; King, Donald B.; and Garrett, James E. *Juvenile Court Handbook*. South Hackensack: Fred B. Rothman and Company, 1970.

McDowell, Charles P. *The Development and Validation of an Inventory of Academic Requirements for Criminal Justice Education*. Ann Arbor: Xerox University Microfilms, 1972.

McElhaney, James W. "Toward the Effective Teaching of Trial Advocacy." *University of Miami Law Review* 29 (Winter 1975): 198-217.

McLennan, Kenneth, and Moscow, Michael. "Multilateral Bargaining in the Public Sector." In: *Collective Bargaining in Government: Readings and Cases*, edited by Loewenberg and Moscow. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972.

Medsker, Leland L. "Community College Education." In: *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*. 4th ed. New York: McMillan Company, 1969.

"Metropolitan Courts Conference." Special Issue. *Judicature* 53 (1970): 224-262.

Metz, Catherine, and Mann, Debbie. *Report on Parole Agent I, Youth Authority Qualifications Appraisal Interview Study*. Sacramento: California State Personnel Board, 1975.

Miller, Jerry W. *Organizational Structure of Non-Governmental Post-Secondary Accreditation: Relationship to Uses of Accreditation*. Washington: National Commission on Accreditation, 1973.

Miller, Jon, and Fry, Lincoln. "Reexamining Assumptions About Education and Professionalism in Law Enforcement." *Journal of Police Science and Administration* 4 (June 1976): 187-196.

"Minnesota Judicial-Police-Prosecutor Relationships Seminars." Processed. Minnesota County Attorneys Council, 1975.

Minnesota Office of Continuing Education for State Court Personnel. *Eighteen Month Report*. Minneapolis, 1975.

Mintzberg, Henry. "The Manager's Job: Folklore and Fact." *Harvard Business Review* 53 (July-August 1975): 49-61.

________________. "Planning on the Left Side and Managing on the Right." *Harvard Business Review* 54 (July-August 1976): 49-58.

Misner, Gordon E. "Accreditation of Criminal Justice Education Program." *The Police Chief* 42 (August 1975): 16, 78.

Montillaro, Louis F., and Carmany, James P. "Service Account Ability Model for the Juvenile Justice System." *Juvenile Justice* 26 (May 1975): 35-40.

Moore, Merlyn Douglas. "A Study of the Placement and Utilization Patterns and Views of the Criminal Justice Graduates of Michigan State University." Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1972.

Morgan, J. P., Jr.., and Korstad, Richard J. "Impact of Collective Bargaining on Law Enforcement and Corrections." Processed. St. Petersburg: Public Safety Research Institute, 1976. (A study commissioned by the National Manpower Survey).

Morton, Joann B., and Beadles, Nicholas. "Collective Bargaining Activity in State Correctional Agencies." In: *Readings in Public Employee/Management Relations for Correctional Administration*. Athens: University of Georgia, 1975.

Morton, Joann B.,; Callahan, Kirkwood, M.; and Beadles, Nicholas A. *Readings in Public Employee/Management Relations for Correctional Employees*. Athens: University of Georgia, Institute of Government, 1973.

Myers, Webster, Jr. "Law School Curriculum Study." Processed. Ford Foundation Report. University of South Carolina School of Law, 1970.

Myren, Richard A. Education for Criminal Justice. A report prepared for the California Coordinating Council for Higher Education. Sacramento, 1970.

Nagel, William. The New Red Barn: A Critical Look at the Modern American Prison. New York: Walker and Company, 1975.

National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. Police. Corrections. Courts. Washington, 1973.

National Center for Defense Management. Management Seminar: Ohio Public Defenders Association Course Materials. Washington: National Legal Aide and Defenders Association, 1976.

National Center for Educational Statistics. The Condition of Education. Washington, 1975.

National Center for Prosecution Management. Budgeting for the Prosecutor. Chicago, 1974.

__________. Deferred Prosecution. Chicago, 1974.

__________. Handbook for Rural and Small Office Prosecutors. Chicago, 1974.

__________. Statistical Tools for the Prosecutor. Chicago, 1974.

__________. Two-Year Curriculum in Criminal Justice--Prosecution Management Option. College Park: Montgomery College, Maryland, 1974.

National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement (Wickersham Commission). Report on the Police. Washington, 1931.

National Commission on Productivity. A Report of the Advisory Group on Productivity in Law Enforcement on Opportunities for Improving Productivity in Police Services. Washington, 1973.

National Institute for Trial Advocacy. "Programs of Training in Trial Advocacy." Law Enforcement Assistance Administration Progress Report, February 1975.

Neil, Thomas C., and Hecker, Benson. "In-Service Training in the University." *Personnel and Guidance Journal* 53 (October 1974): 150-165.

Nejelski, Paul, and La Pook, Judith. "Monitoring the Juvenile Justice System: How Can You Tell Where You're Going, if You Don't Know Where You Are?" *The American Criminal Law Review* 12 (1974): 9-31.

Nelson, Elmer K., and Lovell, Catherine H. *Developing Correction Administrators*. Washington: Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1969.

"The New FBI Academy: A University for Law Enforcement." *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin* (July 1972).

Newman, Charles L., and Price, Barbara R. "Police Executive Development: An Educational Program at the Pennsylvania State University." *The Police Chief* 41 (April 1974): 74-77.

Newman, Charles L.; Price, Barbara R.; and Horner, James R. "Police Executive In-Service Training and Its Effect on Selected Personality Traits: A Preliminary Analysis." (Part I). *Police Law Quarterly* 2 (1975): 14-27.

Note: "Modern Trends in Legal Education." *Columbia Law Review* 64 (1964): 710-732.

Note: "Legal Education and Public Policy: Professional Training in the Public Interest." *Yale Law Journal* 52 (1943).

Number of Full-Time Master's Degree Students Enrolled by Field of Practice in Social Work, and Manpower Data Bank Frequency Distributions. National Association of Social Workers, 1975.

O'Connor, James A. "Bramshill: An American's Perspective." *The Police Chief* 43 (August 1976): 66-68.

Ohlin, Lloyd.; Graves, Robert; and Miller, Alden D. "Radical Correctional Reform: A Case Study of the Massachusetts Youth Correctional System." *Harvard Educational Review* 44 (February 1974): 74-111.

"Oklahoma Judicial Education and Training Programs." Processed. State Court Administrator's Office, 1975.

O'Leary, Vincent. "Programs of Correctional Study in Higher Education." Crime and Delinquency 22 (January 1976): 52-66.

O'Leary, Vincent, and Duffee, David. "Managerial Behavior and Correctional Policy." Public Administration Review (November-December 1971): 603-616.

O'Neill, Michael E., and Martesen, Kai R. Criminal Justice Group Training: A Facilitator's Handbook. LaJolla: University Associates, Inc., 1975.

Oppenheimer, Martin. "The Unionization of the Professional." Social Policy (January-February 1975): 34-40.

"Orientation Seminar for Newly-Elected and Newly-Appointed Judges. December 1-5, 1975." Processed. New York: Office of Court Administration.

Pace, Denny F.; Stinchcomb, James D.; and Styles, Jimmie C. Law Enforcement Training and the Community College: Alternatives for Affilitation. Washington: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1970.

Packer, Herbert L., and Ehrlich, Thomas. New Directions in Legal Education. A report prepared for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1972.

Parsonage, William H.; Urbian, Hugh B.; and Vondracek, Fred W. "Implementing Recent Innovations in Juvenile Justice." Juvenile Justice 26 (August 1975): 31-41.

Patton, Arch. "The Coming Flood of Young Executives." Harvard Business Review 54 (September-October 1976): 20.

Piven, Herman, and Alcabes, Abraham. Education, Training, and Manpower in Corrections and Law Enforcement. Source Book I: Education in Colleges and Universities 1965-1966, 1966-1967. Washington, 1967.

_______________. Education, Training, and Manpower in Corrections and Law Enforcement. Source Book II: Manpower, Workloads, and Salaries 1965 and 1966. Washington, 1967.

Police and Administrative Guidance. Evanston: Northwestern University, 1975.

Police Chief Executive Committee. *The Police Chief Executive Report.* Washington: International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1976.

"Police Science Programs in American Universities--Colleges--Junior Colleges." *The Police Chief* 32 (May 1965): 32-42.

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society.* Washington, 1967.

Pre-Trial Release and Diversion Services. Management Training Institute. Hackensack: National Council on Crime and Delinquency, 1974.

Price, Barbara R. "Study of Leadership Strength of Female Police Executives." *Journal of Police Science and Administration* 2 (June 1974): 233-240.

Proceedings of the Asheville Conference of Law School Deans on Education for Professional Responsibility, September 10-12, 1965.

Prosecutor Training Program. Final Report. Washington: U.S. Attorney's Office of the District of Columbia and The Institute for Law and Social Research, 1975.

The Public Defender Service of the District of Columbia. *Volume I: Policies and Procedures and Volume II: Training Materials.* (LEAA Exemplary Project). Washington: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1974.

Pulliam, Jack C., ed. *The Proceedings of the National Association of Training Schools and Juvenile Agencies.* New Orleans: June 17-20, 1973.

Recommendations for Developing an In-State Judicial Education Program for Hawaii District Court Trial Judges. Washington: The American University, Criminal Courts Technical Assistance Project, 1973.

Recruitment and Retention of Attorneys in the Office of Attorney General. Raleigh: National Association of Attorneys General, 1975.

Redmount, Robert S. "A Conceptual View of the Legal Education Process." *Journal of Legal Education* 24 (1972): 129-179.

Reed, Alfred Z. "Training for the Public Profession of the Law (1921), as edited by Kate Wallach. In: Proceedings of the Association of American Law Schools, 1971, Part I, Section II, Appendix II. Washington: Association of American Law Schools, 1972.

Reed, John W. "National Judicial Educational Programs." Processed. National Center for State Courts, 1972.

Report of the Task Force on Corrections and the Higher Education System. Madison: University of Wisconsin System, 1973.

Report to the Governor, The Secretary of Public Safety, and Correctional Services and Members of the General Assembly. Pikesville: Maryland Police and Correctional Training Commissions, July 1, 1974 to June 30, 1975.

Ripple, Lilian, ed. Statistics on Social Work Education in the United States: 1974. New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1975.

Rochford, James M. "Determining Police Effectiveness." FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin 43 (October 1974): 16-18.

Role Training Program: Caseworker, Correction Worker. Project STAR Prepared for California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training. Sacramento: American Justice Institute, 1974.

Role Training Program: Judge, Defense Attorney, Prosecuting Attorney. Project Star. Prepared for California Commission on Peace Officer Standards and Training. Sacramento: American Justice Institute, 1974.

Ruddock, Robert L. "Recruit Training: Stress v. Non-stress." The Police Chief 41 (November 1975): 47-50.

Saari, David J. "Court Management and the Administration of Justice." In: The Rule of Law: An Alternative to Violence. A Report to the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence. Nashville: Aurora Publishers, 1970.

Saunders, Charles B., Jr. Upgrading the American Police. Washington: The Brookings Institution, 1970.

Savoy, Paul N. "Toward a New Politics of Legal Education." The Yale Law Journal 79 (1970): 444-504.

"School of Criminal Justice Graduate Study." Preliminary Report. Processed. East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1975.

Selden, William K. Accrediting: A Struggle Over Standards in Higher Education. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960.

Selected Developments in Prosecutor Training and Assistance Programs. Raleigh: National Association of Attorneys General, 1975.

Selected Papers from the Workshop for Correctional Educators in Colleges and Universities. Albany, New York, August 1973. Sponsored by the National Institute of Corrections.

Senna, Joseph J. "Criminal Justice Higher Education--Its Growth and Directions." Crime and Delinquency 20 (October 1974): 389-397.

______________. "The Need for Professional Education in Probation and Parole." Crime and Delinquency 22 (January 1976): 67-74.

Silverberg, Herbert M. "Law School Legal Aid Clinics: A Sample Plan, Their Legal Status." University of Pennsylvania Law Review 17 (1969): 970-1001.

Skogan, Wesley. "Efficiency and Effectiveness in Big City Police Departments." Public Administration Review (May-June 1976).

Smith, Dennis C., and Ostrom, Elinor. "The Effects of Training and Education on Police Attitudes and Performance: A Preliminary Analysis." In: The Potential for Reform of Criminal Justice edited by Herbert Jacob. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1974.

Solomon, Maureen M. Guidelines for Development of Computer Training Curricula for Court Personnel. Denver: National Center for State Courts, 1974.

Suryal, Sam S. "The Case of State Centralized Police Training." Journal of Police Science and Administration 3 (September 1975): 363-369.

Sparling, Cynthia L. "The Use of Education Standards as Selection Criteria in Police Agencies: A Review." Journal of Police Science and Administration 3 (September 1975): 332-335.

"Staff Development: A Strategy for Change." In: Perspectives on Correctional Manpower and Training. Washington: Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1970.

Stahl, O. Glenn, and Staufenberger, Richard. Police Personnel Administration. Washington: The Police Foundation, 1974.

Standards of Operation for Continuing Legal Education Organizations. Newark: Institute for Continuing Legal Education, 1975.

Statutory Basis of Police Standards and Training Commission. Special Report. Raleigh: National Association of Attorneys General, 1975.

Stevin, Dennis P. "The Assessment Center: A Breakthrough in Management Appraisal and Development." Personnel Journal 51 (April 1972).

Stinchcomb, James D. "Consultant's Report: Criminal Justice Higher Education in Arizona." Processed. Richmond: Virginia Commonwealth University, 1973.

________________. "The Two-Year Community College: An Assessment of its Involvement in Law Enforcement from 1966 through 1976--with Future Implications." The Police Chief 43 (August 1976): 16-21.

________________. Opportunities in Law Enforcement and Related Careers. Louisville: Vocational Guidance Manuals, 1976.

Stoikou, Vladimir. The Economics of Recurrent Education and Training. Geneva: International Labor Office, 1975.

Stolz, Preble. "Training for the Public Profession of the Law (1921): A Contemporary Review." In: Proceedings of the Association of American Law Schools, 1971, Part I, Section II, Appendix II. Washington: Proceedings of the Association of American Law Schools, 1972.

Stredt, Elliot. A Conceptual Approach to Teaching Materials: Illustrations from the Field of Corrections. New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1965.

A Study of the Common Training Requirements by State Planning Agencies. Final Report. Bethesda: The Potomac Group, Inc., 1974.

Summary Information on Master of Social Work Programs: 1975. New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1975.

Survey and Directory of Clinical Legal Education 1974-75. New York: Council on Legal Education for Professional Responsibility, Inc., 1975.

Survey of Correctional Manpower in Arizona: Probation, Parole Institutions. Boulder: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1970.

Survey of Legal Education. London: Society of Public Teachers of Law, 1967.

Swank, Calvin J. "Criminal Justice Education: The Dilemma of Articulation." *Journal of Criminal Justice* 3 (Fall 1975): 217-222.

Tomaino, Louis. "The Five Faces of Probation." *Federal Probation* 39 (December 1975): 42-44.

Tenney, Charles W., Jr. *Higher Education Programs in Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice*. Washington: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1971.

Territo, Leonard. "College Credit for Law Enforcement Training Courses: Recent Trends and Future Projections." *The Police Chief* 42 (August 1975): 32-35.

______________. "The Communication and Credibility Gap Between Police Administrators and Criminal Justice Educators." *The Police Chief* 43 (August 1976): 26-29.

Thompson, Kenneth W. "Education for What?" The Debate Over Goals." In: *The Task of Universities in a Changing World*, edited by Stephen D. Kertesz. Notre Dame: University of Notre Dame, 1971.

A Time to Act. Washington: Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training, 1969.

A Training Center for Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice Personnel. (Hawaii). Honolulu: Dillingham Corporation, 1970.

Training Center for Corrections: Rationale and Techniques. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University, Center for the Study of Crime, Delinquency, and Corrections, no date.

Training for the Public Profession of the Law. *Proceedings of the Association of American Law Schools, Part I, Section II*. Washington: Associa- of American Law Schools, 1971.

Training Program for Pre-Service Correctional Officer Trainees. Illinois Department of Corrections Training Academy, no date.

"Training Tomorrow's Lawyers: A Response to the Chief Justice's Challenge." Columbia Journal of Law and Social Problems 11 (1974): 72-98.

Treger, Harvey, and Viswanathan, Narayan. "Interdisciplinary Education in Macro-Systems Perspective." Paper presented at conference on Key Issues in Criminal Justice Doctoral Education, University of Nebraska, October 21-23, 1975. Processed.

Trojanowicz, Robert C., and Nicholson, Thomas G. "A Comparison of Behavior Styles of College Graduate Police Officers v. Noncollege-Going Police Officers." The Police Chief 43 (August 1976): 56-59.

Tytell, Harold. "Training Programs to Preclude Job-Induced Bias Among Police and Other Criminal Justice Practitioners." Journal of Police Science and Administration 3 (September 1975): 351-353.

Ullung, Cy. An Evaluation of the Washington Criminal Justice Education Training Center. Columbus: Battelle Memorial Institute, 1974.

Undergraduate Programs in Social Work: Guidelines to Curriculum Content, Field Instruction, and Organization. New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1971.

Unger, Sanford. FBI. Atlantic-Little, Brown, 1976.

U.S. Bureau of the Census and Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. Expenditure and Employment Data for the Criminal Justice System 1974. Washington, 1976.

U.S. Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation. U.S. Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics. Washington, 1974.

__________. Uniform Crime Reports for the United States, 1974. Washington, 1975.

U. S. Department of Labor. College Bargaining Agreements for Police and Firefighters. Washington, 1975.

__________. Manpower Report of the President. Annual Volumes. Washington.

U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Office of Education. Functions of Accreditation, National Reorganized Accrediting Agencies and Associations. Washington, 1971.

Vanagunas, Stanley. "A Role for the States: A Model Interstate Compact for the Training and Education of Criminal Justice Personnel." Crime and Delinquency 19 (January 1973): 49-53.

Werner, Eric; Sieber, Margaret; and Conover, Catherine. "Validation of the Youth Counselor and Group Supervisor Examination Programs." Processed. Sacramento: California State Personnel Board, 1975.

Wheeler, Thomas L., and Shanahan, Gerald W. "Management in Law Enforcement." Journal of Police Science and Administration 3 (December 1975):

White, James P. "Is That Burgeoning Law School Enrolling Ending?" American Bar Association Journal 61 (February 1975): 202-204.

__________. "The Lawyer as Negotiator: An Adventure in Understanding and Teaching the Art of Negotiation." Journal of Legal Education 19 (1967).

__________. "Legal Education: A Time of Change." American Bar Association Journal 62 (March 1976): 355-358.

White, Susan O. "A Perspective on Police Professionalism." Law and Society Review (Fall 1972): 61-85.

Wice, Paul B., and Pilgrim, Mark. "A Survey of Public Defender Programs." Judicature 58 (1975): 401-410.

Wise, David A. "Academic Achievement and Job Performance." The American Economic Review 65 (June 1975): 350-366.

Wolfe, Joan L., and Heaphy, John F., eds. Readings on Productivity in Policing. Washington: Police Foundation, 1975.

Wrapp, H. Edward. "Good Managers Don't Make Policy Decisions." Harvard Business Review 45 (September-October 1967): 91-99.

Yankee, William Joseph. "A Description and Evaluation of the Associate Degree Law Enforcement Curricula in the Public Community and Junior Colleges of Michigan." Ann Arbor: Xerox University Microfilms, 1971.

Zagoria, Sam, ed. Public Workers and Public Unions. Prentice-Hall, 1973.

☆U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1978—260-992:2133